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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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Published bimonthly by the Faculty of
GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS
NASHVILLE TENNESSEE
Two dollars a year Single copies 40 cents

PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Edited and Published by

THE FACULTY OF GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS

NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

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THE PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION is published bi-monthly—in July, September, January, March, and May—at George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. The subscription price is $2.00 per year; single copies, 40 cents; less than a half year at the single-copy rate. Single copies can be supplied only when the stock on hand warrants. Foreign postage, 20 cents a year extra.

Entered at the post office at Nashville, Tennessee, as second-class mail matter. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized September 14, 1923.

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THE PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION is indexed in the *Education Index*.

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PEABODY JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

Volume 8 NOVEMBER, 1930 Number 3

THE STENOGRAPHIC REPORT AS A SUPERVISORY INSTRUMENT

WALTER D. COCKING
George Peabody College for Teachers

The improvement of instruction is of primary importance to the school administrator. This is a constant responsibility. It is important for him to discover and to know what means offer the best possibilities for improving what is taught.

In the search for the instruments which seem to offer hope in securing better instruction, the administrator must keep in mind the limitations which surround. Among these are (1) the ability to finance the undertaking; (2) economy of time; and (3) reasonable assurance of some objective success. Students in this field are seeking for such instruments. It is necessary for much experimentation to be carried on in discovering those which are of value and are practical. Here, then, is a fertile field for much necessary research.

The experiment herein described is presented for the purpose of calling the attention of school superintendents and principals to one possible instrument of supervision which is believed practical for both large and small school systems. It is hoped that others may be interested to make similar studies to check the results of such an instrument in other fields of instruction. This experiment was carried on through the Department of School Administration at George Peabody College for Teachers by Mrs. Annie Laurie Peeler.[1] The detailed account of the study was presented as a Master's thesis.[2] The

[1]Mrs. Peeler is a critic teacher at the Tennessee Southwestern State Teachers College at Memphis, Tennessee.

[2]Annie Laurie Peeler, *The Stenographic Report of a Classroom Activity in Improving Instruction.* Unpublished Master's Thesis, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930.

account of the experiment here given is in the main as Mrs. Peeler presented it in her thesis.

Various techniques of taking notes that attempt to give a true unbiased picture of an activity have been devised by Clarence E. Blume, O. G. Brim, and others.[3] It is recognized that as supervision becomes more democratic and co-operative the right of the teacher to see a true account of her class activity is more keenly appreciated. It naturally follows that such a report should furnish a tangible, definite approach to the problem of improving teaching as well as stimulation to attack this problem. This conclusion, however, gives rise to the inquiry, will a teacher improve her teaching if an exact reproduction of the class activity is placed in her hands?

In a previous study, stenographic reports of lessons as the basis for co-operative supervision were used by William L. Matthews,[4] of Franklin, Kentucky, in 1927. The accounts of lessons were placed in the hands of the teacher, then analyzed and graphed by teacher and supervisor as to:

(a) Amount of teacher activity.
(b) Amount of student activity.
(c) Number and quality of questions asked by teacher.
(d) Kind and quality of answers and statements made by students.
(e) Assignment.
    1. When made.
    2. How made.

This study showed the following results:

(a) Supervision by lesson analysis reduced the teacher activity and increased the student activity in recitation.
(b) It increased the number of well thought out questions and statements by both teacher and students, and reduced the number of poor statements.
(c) It aided in the summing up and clinching of what had been taught; and assisted in giving the lesson an aim.

The essential purpose of the study herein described was to determine whether the stenographic reports of geography activities when returned to the teacher affect the efficiency of instruction as measured by the results of pupils on a factual geography test.

The equivalent-groups method was selected as the best for this study. Ten sixth-grade geography classes were used, five classes in the experimental group and five classes in the control group. These classes were in Davidson County schools, located in suburbs of Nashville, Tennessee. Attempts were made to hold constant, as far as possible, all factors except the putting into the hands of the teachers of the experimental group the reports of their

[3]Clarence E. Blume, "Techniques in the Measuring of Pupil Attention." *Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction.*
O. G. Brim, "The Recording of the General Facts Regarding Teaching Practice." Ibid.

[4]William L. Matthews, *Supervising The Recitation By Lesson Analysis.* Unpublished Master's Thesis, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1927.

activities. The study extended over a period of six weeks, during which time three stenographic reports were made. Initial and final subject-matter tests on the especially planned unit of study, Southern and Central Europe, were given and the results were treated statistically.

This study can be only indicative because: first, the time was limited, growth and development of teachers and pupils are slow; second, the means of measurement was a factual test as the unit of work had to be adjusted to the county course of study and the required text, which included only factual material; third, the sampling of teachers was small.

The schools of the two groups were paired as to general environmental conditions. Two schools were located in well-to-do suburbs, six in medium type communities, and two in poor sections. All were near the city of Nashville. The type and size of buildings were also matched. The organization and administration of the schools were carefully considered. The following table indicates the size of the classes:

TABLE I

NUMBER OF PUPILS IN THE GEOGRAPHY CLASSES OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	CONTROL GROUP	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
	17	17
	18	19
	20	21
	20	23
	25	23
Total	100	103
Average	20	20 3–5

All ten teachers had practically the same teacher-load.

The type of supervision was the same in all of the schools. Each school had a supervising principal, and a general county supervisor for the upper elementary grades.

The furnished instructional materials, such as maps, globes, reference books, etc., were similar throughout the ten schools. The amount of supplementary material supplied by the pupils varied according to interest stimulated by the teacher.

The teachers were rated subjectively by the Superintendent as being of equivalent rank and were selected by him for the study. Table II gives a comparison of the training and experience of the teachers of the two groups.

TABLE II

EXPERIENCE AND TRAINING OF THE TEN TEACHERS INCLUDED IN THE EXPERIMENT

	CONTROL GROUP	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
High School Graduates	5	5
College Degree	1	2
Average Quarter Hours in Education	12 3–5	21 2–5
Range	13-30	13-35
Average Year's Experience	9 1–5	7 3–5
Range	5-13	2-11

These data show that training slightly favored the teachers of the experimental group while experience favored the teachers of the control group.

All pupils were given the National Intelligence Test, Scale I, Form I. Table III presents the status of the two groups.

TABLE III

INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS OF THE PUPILS OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	CONTROL GROUP	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
Range	68-145	62-140
Mean	98.795	97.425
S. D.	17.297	15.87

It will be noted that the two groups compared favorably with each other and with national norms. The mean slightly favored the control group. Table IV indicates the chronological ages of the two groups.

TABLE IV

CHRONOLOGICAL AGES, FEBRUARY, 1930, OF THE PUPILS OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	CONTROL GROUP	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
Range	10 yrs. 3 mos.—16 yrs. 7 mos.	10 yrs. 4 mos.—17 yrs. 7 mos.
Mean	12 yrs. 8 mos.	12 yrs. 3 mos.
S. D.	1 yr. 1 mo.	1 yr. 4 mos.

Immediately preceding the taking of the first stenographic reports of the activities of the classes in geography initial objective subject matter tests were given to the pupils of the control and experimental groups. These tests were prepared from the subject matter of the unit of instruction which was to be studied by both groups throughout the period of the experiment. The purpose of the initial test, of course, was to reveal the knowledge

possessed by the two groups prior to the actual study of the given unit of instruction. Table V indicates the results for the two groups on these tests.

TABLE V

RESULTS OF THE INITIAL ACHIEVEMENT TEST FOR THE PUPILS OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	CONTROL GROUP	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
Range	1-23	2-26
Mean	10.656	11.69
S. D.	5.05	5.838

It will be noted that the results only slightly favored the experimental group.

On the day following the giving of the initial tests, the first stenographic reports of the activities in geography were recorded.

Special care was taken in selecting a competent stenographer. Several highly recommended were previously tested out, and from the group the most efficient stenotypist was chosen for the experiment. Mrs. Peeler describes the stenographer as follows; "She was very tactful in her relation to the teachers and pupils and in no way did she detract from the class activity. She was given definite instructions to record an accurate and complete record of every thing that transpired in the classroom during the thirty minutes that she was there. She was impressed with the necessity of securing a true picture of the complete activity if the experiment was to be reliable. She accepted her responsibility and was able to transcribe splendid reproductions of the activities in Geography."

A copy of the stenographic report without any comments as to how it might be used was placed in the hands of each teacher of the experimental group. The teachers of the control group did not receive the copies of their activities. This represents the only difference in the work of the two groups throughout the six weeks period of the experiment.

During the third week of the experiment the stenotypist again made exact reproductions of the class activities. Copies were placed in the hands of the teachers of the experimental group. Preceding the final test, the third set of reports were taken and returned to the teachers of the experimental group. The teachers of the experimental group were free to do with their reports whatever they wished. Their personal reactions were secured, after the experiment was completed. A summary of the use made of these reports is given here.

TABLE VI

USE MADE OF THE STENOGRAPHIC REPORTS BY THE FIVE TEACHERS OF THE EXPERIMENT GROUP

1. When the account of the activity was returned to you what did you do with it?	Read it ?
	Yes 5
	No 0
2. Did you seriously study it?	Yes 5
	No 0
3. Did you analyze your type of questions?	Yes 5
	No 0
4. If you were not satisfied with them, did you attempt to change them?	Yes 5
	No 0
5. Did you especially study your assignment?	Yes 5
	No 0
6. If so, did you analyze the quality and number of learning exercises provided for pupils?	Yes 4
	No 1
7. Did you study the class activity from the viewpoint of purposing, executing, and judging results by pupils?	Yes 5
	No 0
8. Did you compare the amount of pupil-activity versus teacher-activity?	Yes 5
	No 0
9. Did you analyze the distribution of pupils' responses?	Yes 5
	No 0
10. After the study of your lesson, were you stimulated to try to change the organization or method of your teaching?	Very much 5
	A little 1
	Not at all 0
11. Were you inclined to put more time in the preparation of your class activity in providing material and reference books for your group, or in stimulating the pupils to seek information outside the text?	Very much 5
	A little more 1
	None at all 0
12. Were you stimulated to do some definite reading on your subject-matter or on how to teach geography?	Yes 5
	No 0

At the end of the period of six weeks final achievement tests were given. Table VII gives the summary of the results of the two groups on these tests.

TABLE VII

RESULTS ON FINAL ACHIEVEMENT TEST MADE BY THE PUPILS OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	CONTROL GROUP	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
Range	10-46	12-55
Mean	28.21	33.518
S. D.	9.16	10.522

Summaries of the results on the initial and final achievement tests of the control and experimental groups are presented in the tables and graphs that follow:

TABLE VIII

COMPARISON OF THE SUMMARIES OF THE RESULTS OF THE CONTROL GROUP ON THE INITIAL AND FINAL TESTS

	INITIAL TEST		FINAL TEST
Range	1-24		10-46
Mean	10.656		28.21
S. D.	5.05		9.16
Mean Gain		17.55	
P. E. Difference		.783	

TABLE IX

COMPARISON OF THE SUMMARIES OF THE RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ON THE INITIAL AND FINAL ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

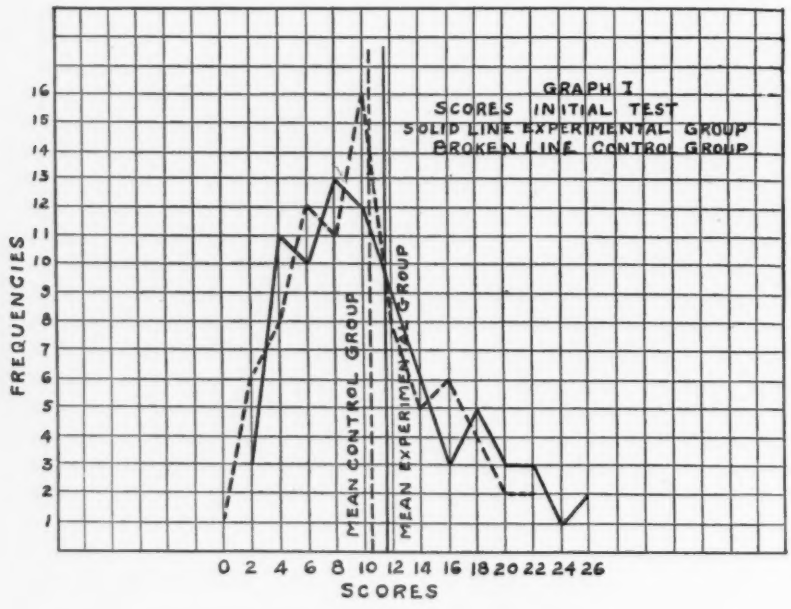
	INITIAL TEST		FINAL TEST
Range	2-26		12-56
Mean	11.69		33.518
S. D	5.838		10.522
Mean Gain		21.828	
P. E Difference		.901	

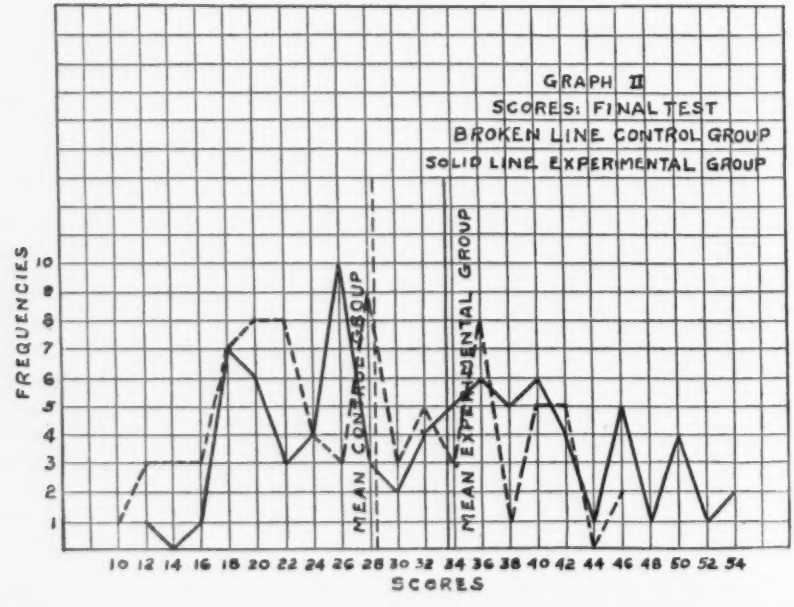
The mean gain of the experimental group was 21.828 score points while the mean gain of the control group was 17.55 score points which shows a mean gain of 4.374 score points by the experimental group over the control group. Computing the reliability of the difference[5] to determine if the gain had real significance, it was found that the experimental group did make a significant gain over the control group.

According to the statistical computation the data would indicate that there are approximately 99 chances in 100 that there is a true difference greater than zero between the gains of the experimental and the control groups, or in other words the results show a high degree of reliability.[6]

The individual differences were also treated statistically in order to secure a more accurate picture of the status of the gains of the two groups. The results indicate also that the gain of the experimental group over the control is of real significance. From the standard error of the difference it was found that the chances are 100 in 100 that the obtained difference represents a true difference greater than zero, or is completely reliable.[7]

[5]H. E. Garrett, *Statistics in Psychology and Education*, 146.
[6]Garrett, op. cit., 135, Table XV.
[7]Walter S. Monroe and Max D. Engelhardt, *Experimental Research in Education*, 61 and 63.


GRAPH I
SCORES INITIAL TEST
SOLID LINE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
BROKEN LINE CONTROL GROUP
FREQUENCIES
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16
MEAN CONTROL GROUP
MEAN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20 22 24 26
SCORES


GRAPH II
SCORES: FINAL TEST
BROKEN LINE CONTROL GROUP
SOLID LINE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
FREQUENCIES
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
MEAN CONTROL GROUP
MEAN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
10 12 14 16 18 20 22 24 26 28 30 32 34 36 38 40 42 44 46 48 50 52 54
SCORES

Thus the data that were secured in this experiment furnish strong evidence to the effect that improvement in the teaching of geography occurred in the experimental group over that of the control group due to placing in the hands of the teachers of the experimental group exact reproductions of the activities of the geography classes.

Furthermore teacher approval is an important consideration in evaluating any supervisory instrument for its practical value depends largely upon the extent to which the teachers endorse it. It is true that the number of teachers in this instance was small, however they unanimously accepted these stenographic reports, used them, and actually changed their technique of teaching in many ways. They all acknowledged that they had been stimulated to try to overcome weaknesses that they had discovered, and to seek help in removing them.

It is hoped that this study may stimulate further investigations dealing with the value of accurate stenographic reports in the hands of the teachers. In conducting similar studies caution should be observed in securing competent stenographers who have had experience in taking notes of class activities.

It may be observed that it would seem reasonable that the results secured through this study might have been more marked if the teachers had had available competent advice on how to improve their work.

In conclusion the results of this experiment indicate that administrators may well consider the advisability of using the stenographic report as one objective means to improve instruction. It may be that more money spent for this purpose, and less spent on some other supervisory activities, will pay large dividends.

A COMPARISON OF THE SCIENCE INTERESTS OF TWO SUCCESSIVE SECOND GRADES

LUCY NULTON
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During the school year 1928-1929 a record was kept of the science interests and questions of a group of second grade children. (Peabody Journal, January, 1930). This was followed by a record during 1929-1930 of the science interests of the succeeding second grade in the same school situation.

While the first record may have been enlightening as a possible indication of trends in interest it did not warrant any hasty conclusions. However, when we brought the two records together they did furnish a most fascinating basis for comparisons. If they do not warrant some *tentative* conclusions (granted that such a paradox be possible) they are stimulating, at least, when one thinks of the possibilities in meeting children's interests and questions.

These two successive second grades were very different groups and not at all alike. The first seemed more mature, richer in experience, and infinitely more sophisticated. It abounded in leadership and these children had well-provisioned home environments upon which to draw for materials, stimulations, and help. The second group seemed relatively immature, lacking in leadership, and only mediocre in experience, while few of these children had extensive resources at home.

Long before the end of the second year it was noticeable that the first group had, of its own accord, gone much more deeply into an interest and had followed it through to more detailed and comprehensive investigation. The second group had not gone so deeply into any one interest as the other group had, but these children were more widely interested, particularly in gaining experiences and finding out "What is it like?" This group had a tendency to "smatter" over a wide field of investigation. The tendency was not so marked toward the close when the children had more experience and had gained wider acquaintance with things. When records were compared at the end of the two years these observations were verified. Consequently the following lists indicate more varied interests on the part of the second group.

In these lists the interests are grouped and labelled as large, distinct interests and cannot indicate the varied phases of interest or the many sub-interests arising out of the main topics. Although frequently the sub-interests and the inter-lapping questions were quite as vital as the distinct

topic listed, it was impossible to catalog these satisfactorily, especially for comparisons. We can only note that during the first year there were at least one-hundred-thiry-six separate inquiries; during the second year, one-hundred-sixty-seven. These many interests have been grouped according to the frequency of occurence. Those recurring more than three times have been grouped under (a); those recurring two or three times under (b); and those arising only once under (c).

A List of Interests Which Occurred in Both Second Grades

(a) *Many times:* Caring for plants and flowers for the room; planting bulbs; collecting and keeping cocoons; birds; the world—its shape and relation to the sun and moon; air and what it can do; the rainbow; garden; characteristics of different kinds of wood.

(b) *A few times:* Pets; gold fish; knot holes in wood; evaporation; magnification; snails; difference in textures of clay and sand; noticing musical notes in ordinary things about them; magnets; thermometer; grasshoppers; moss; changing color of leaves; kinds of cloth; turtles; ocean; erosion.

(c) *Only once:* The calendar; barometer; bony framework of human body; tadpoles; roots of plants and trees; buds; veins of plants, then of body; pores of skin; weather; first day of spring; diseases; pussywillows; moon; whales.

Interests Which Occurred Only in One Group's Record

(a) *Those only in the first group's record:* Shells; care of hands; teeth and hair; desert; mustard plants; what happens to food we eat; where are all the muscles; water supply; breathing; what makes day and night; telegraph and cable; *grasses; *octopus; *deep sea diving.

(b) *Those only in the second group's record:* Scales of weight; shapes of trees; color of fall flowers; ventilation; churning; horizon; wild animals; how can a fountain pen hold and write; perfumes; bird houses; egg shells; sunsets; cookie making; metals; musical tones and their productive condensation; enlargement through water; reflections; shadows; types of flowers; dyeing; refrigeration; cork; *Byrd's expedition; kiln for burning pottery; pebbles and stones.

Our main concern is in recognizing those interests which occurred repeatedly and in noting and eliminating those interests which were peculiarly local and transitory either because of location or time.

In these lists those marked by an asterisk indicate interests which arose out of a peculiarly local situation and which probably would not occur in another situation under different circumstances. On the other hand, there were several interests which occurred repeatedly in both grades and which arose from widely differing situations.

Moreover, experience has shown, though we have no detailed records, that there are certain interests which occur again and again in every second grade situation. Among those interests which invariably arise are the following:

Bringing and caring for plants and cut flowers for the room
Planting bulbs
Snails
Collecting and caring for cocoons
Watching changing colors of leaves
Evidences of air, what it can do
Knot holes in wood
The calendar
The weather
Magnets
Grasshoppers or other insects
Moss
Rainbow
Kinds of Cloth
Pets
Diseases
Birds

In order to determine something of the nature of the child's inquiry into an interest—to find out what it is that the child is concerned with finding out—the records of the two years have been tabulated under the following heads:

How—which is concerned both with the function of the object of interest and with means of achieving desired results—how to do and how to make. Inquiries of this nature were most determined and the most frequently repeated during both years. The first year this was the dominant inquiry fifty-one times; the second year, fifty-seven times.

What Makes—which is merely another form of *Why?* and which denotes interest in cause and effect. This was the dominant inquiry thirty-nine times the first year, fifty times the second year.

Appearance—which usually takes the form of handling, of questioning about its size and shape, of sheer pleasure in looking at it, or of observing its action. This was third in frequency and was the dominant concern twenty-six times during the first year, thirty-five times, the second year.

What—What Is It—these questions arise from further attempts to gain acquaintance with the object of interest and indicate an eagerness for further experience with it. This was the dominant inquiry twenty times the first year, fifteen times the second year.

What Is It Called—This is an interest in identification by name. This arose only twice the first year and only eight times the second year. During the first year it came once as result of teacher lead. During the second year it came once as result of teacher lead; once it was secondary to *How?* The other times it came because names were necessary to the accomplishment of certain child purposes.

Where—This arose only twice the first year, four times the second year.

When—Came only once each year and concerning the same thing each time.

When these are arranged in the order of frequency it is markedly noticeable in both cases that *How* comes first with *Why* nearly as frequent.

These results seem to indicate certain principles which may serve as guides in selecting both materials and means for bringing children into vital contact with the field of science. They indicate plainly that child interests are not adult interests. Children are interested in entirely different aspects of a matter. The early elementary child is not often concerned with identification by name. When he is concerned with names it comes only after much previous experience with the objects. In these two cases identification of birds was the most marked and most direct identification by name, but even that was secondary to interest in how they sang, in color, in the notes of their calls, and in whys. The most vital identifications and those retained longest were names learned in connection with their own purposes; for instance, during their work on butterfly and moth designs for wall hangings.

The interest in names here was incidental and came only as they were needed to identify work. As a whole these children learned few names, but those were retained over a long period.

Young children *are* concerned with how and why and could very profitably use a much greater amount of help with these questions than they usually receive.

These findings indicate that we, as teachers, need to be better acquainted with the multitudinous ways in which interests may arise and with possibilities at hand. Certainly these wide and varied interests of children make us realize most acutely the real need for teachers of broad outlook and wide interests who have had rich experiences and who can direct these child interests into further inquiry and further growth.

These interests make us painfully aware of our own poverty, stricken condition in the fundamental matter of knowledge with which to meet everyday questions of the children. They indicate, too, our need to know more about the hows and whys of all the things about us and our urgent need to know how to do things with our children.

Whether or not such records as these prove to be of any value, outside the particular situation in which they were kept, the teacher who kept these bespeaks most earnestly their value to the one person most concerned—that teacher who keeps a record of this kind. For these records served, as nothing else could, to make the teacher in this situation more conscious of possibilities, more conscious of definitely checking upon what had been accomplished, and more eager toward a reaching out to further growth. Perhaps therein lie the truest values of any record of this nature.

SCHOLARSHIP AS A FACTOR IN TEACHING

FRANCIS SHREVE
Fairmont State Normal School, Fairmont, West Virginia

A widespread and persistent belief that scholarship as represented by credit hours is the chief factor in successful teaching is reflected in the curricula of some normal schools and teachers' colleges. For example, the new teacher-training curricula for West Virginia require from 16 to 50 semester hours credit in a single teaching field.[1] A combination of two teaching fields, as English and Social Science, may require as much as 76 semester hours. On this point, however, West Virginia leads the union. The median, in semester hours, for the 26 states having a fixed requirement in each teaching field is 16 plus.[2] In West Virginia the requirement varies in different teaching fields, the median being about 30. But the virtue appears to be in the quantity rather than in the quality, for an average of only 80 per cent is required for certification in any teaching field.

Is this belief in the potency of scholarship in producing teaching ability founded upon investigation or tradition? Does scholarship as represented by credit hours rank higher than intelligence, or personality, or professional training? May it not be that scholarship, particularly of the academic type, is unduly emphasized in teacher-training curricula?

As one phase of the state survey of education in West Virginia teaching was evaluated on a rating scale or score card containing twenty items. The points ranking highest were: (1) knowledge of subject matter, (2) clear and definite assignments, (3) social value of subject matter, (4) distribution of questions, and (5) proper amount assigned. The general ratings, however, fell considerably below the subject matter ratings. Quite uniformly the scores on scholarship were higher than the general ratings. The Survey states:

> "Where teachers assume that knowledge of subject matter is the chief virtue in the schoolroom they are likely to give it undue emphasis. Such teachers are inclined to monopolize the recitation by lecturing and explaining to the pupils rather than in drawing them out and encouraging them to use their initiative. The writer wonders if there is any connection in the fact that 'The teacher's mastery of subject matter' ranks first and 'Preparation of pupils' ranks sixteenth, 'Challenging the pupil's ability' ranks seventeenth, 'Provision for pupil's initiative,' eighteenth, 'Co-operation of pupils,' nineteenth, and 'Provision for individual differences,' twentieth. These facts are of such significance that they should cause the academic scholar to ask himself, What is the purpose of teaching?

[1] West Virginia Teachers Training Bulletin, No. 7, 1928.
[2] J. S. Kinder, "Requirements for Secondary School Teaching Certificates." *School Review*, 38:110-114.

> Is it to demonstrate the erudition of the teacher, or to develop the untrained powers of the pupil? The writer desires to state that the above comment grows out of the results accumulated by means of twenty-five experts and not from the limited observation of one person."[3]

Approaching the problem from a different angle: Why do teachers fail? Extreme cases ought to reveal the lack of essential qualities. Certainly, teachers who fail utterly are lacking in one or more of the essential qualities of the good teacher. Several studies of the causes of failure among teachers have been made, but only one can be presented here. Madison,[4] in his study of 31 total failures as judged by their county superintendents, found that these 31 failures, with one exception, were among the lowest 10 per cent on intelligence and achievement tests administered upon entrance to the teacher-training institution. The exception was a girl ranking high on the intelligence test and on the marks for scholarship in the normal school. She failed, however, for an apparent reason. "Her discharge was due to an injudicious mixing of two varieties of moonshine." The reasons for these 31 failures are listed in the following table.

	Causes of Failure	Times Mentioned
1.	Personal appearance	3
2.	Poor discipline	12
3.	Inability to systematize work	10
4.	Lack of instructional skill	13
5.	Poor knowledge of subject matter	14
6.	Inability to co-operate	8
7.	Indiscreet conduct	8
8.	Lack of energy and enthusiasm	6
9.	Lack of interest	4
10.	Physical defects	2

From the foregoing data it appears that deficient scholarship contributed to failure in less than half of the cases studied. Furthermore, two or three causes, as a rule, were assigned for each failure. Ignorance of subject matter, therefore, does not prove to be the outstanding cause of failure in this group. In fact, lack of instructional skill and poor discipline together account for almost twice as many failures as does deficient scholarship. Again, analysis of the data shows that personality traits account for many of these failures. Numbers 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, and 9 of the reasons listed may be termed personality traits, and their frequency is 35, or nearly half the total. Finally, personality traits and lack of instructional skill are assigned as causes of failure approximately five times as often as is deficient scholarship, in spite of the fact that this group of teachers ranked low in scholarship in the normal school.

[3] Survey of Education in West Virginia, Volume II, p. 100 (1928).

[4] I. N. Madsen: "The Prediction of Teaching Success." *Educational Administration and Supervision:* 13:39-47.

Several studies have been made to determine the correlation of scholarship and teaching ability, but the results obtained are more or less conflicting. Hamrin[5] found a correlation of only .05 between school marks and the ratings of superintendents, whereas Somers[6] found a correlation of .71 between school marks for two years and teaching in the field. Meriam,[7] basing his computations on teachers' marks and superintendent's ratings, found a correlation of .22 between teaching ability and academic courses, and a slightly higher correlation between teaching ability and professional courses.

More recently, Knight,[8] using the partial correlation technique, made a more extensive study to determine the factors that correlate with teaching abilty. In most cases his correlations are surprisingly low. Ability to teach has a correlation of .147 with scholarship and .164 with intelligence. The ability to pass a professional test, however, has a correlation of .608. The significance of this higher correlation is not clear, but it does suggest that professional training is more important than academic training in producing a good teacher. Further it will be observed that intelligence has a slightly higher correlation than scholarship. May it not be that intelligence is the more basic factor in successful teaching? In other words the capacity to master subject matter as it is needed and to use these materials to attain the ends of education may be the more basic factor in good teaching.

Morris made an investigation to discover the significant elements of teaching personality. She devised a scale for rating personality which she designated *Trait Index L.* Several students were rated on this scale and correlations were computed with their marks in practice teaching. A correlation of .463 was found between personality traits and success in practice teaching. Practice teaching and academic record in high school yielded a correlation of .429. In conclusion, Morris states:

> "Further conclusions reached from consideration of the three multiple R's and multiple regression equations for academic averages, practice teaching, and Trait Index are: (1) The Trait Index is a better measure of probable success in teaching than is any other one of the measures of different variables, but (2) at least the four measures —academic average, health grade, intelligence test score, and Trait Index score— should be considered as a composite."[9]

Similarly, Whitney[10] investigated the problem, "Can teaching Success be predicted?" Nine factors were considered, including student teaching, pro-

[5]S. A. Hamrin: "A Comparative Study of Ratings of Teachers in Training and Teachers in Service." *Elementary School Journal:* 28:39-44.

[6]G. T. Somers: *Pedagogical Prognosis.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 140.

[7]L. S. Meriam: *Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching.* Teachers' College Contributions to Education, No. 1.

[8]F. B. Knight: Qualities Related to Success in Teaching. Teachers' College Contributions to Education, No. 120.

[9]Elizabeth Hunt Morris: Personal Traits and Success in Teaching. Teachers College, Columbia University, N. Y., 1929.

[10]F. L. Whitney: *The Prediction of Teaching Success.* Journal of Education Research Monographs, No. 6 (1924).

fessional marks in the normal school, academic marks in the normal school, and the secondary school record. He found that as a basis for predicting teaching success these factors rank in the following order: (1) student teaching, (2) professional marks, (3) academic marks, (4) physique, and (5) secondary school record.

In Whitney's study, as in the others, scholarship ranks lower than professional training as a factor in successful teaching.

Conclusions

The results of the research work do not justify the extraordinary requirements in teaching fields which some teachers' colleges have set up, nor do they justify the minimizing of professional training. Why should a student be required to have 30 to 50 hours in a single teaching field and at the same time, as one state does, limit his professional training to 24 hours in education?

Since ideas cannot be transplanted from the mind of the teacher to the mind of the pupil, and habits and attitudes cannot be "plastered on," it is difficult to see how scholarship could play the dominant role in teaching. Apparently, the ability to stimulate and guide pupils in the acquisition of ideas, habits, and attitudes is derived from scholarship of the academic type to a limited degree, but more from such other sources as intelligence, personality traits, and professional training. From the foregoing studies it would appear that these should be ranked in the following order:

1. Personality traits.
2. Professional training.
3. Intelligence.
4. Scholarship.

Some Applications

If teacher-training institutions are to go on to higher levels of efficiency, some new policies must be inaugurated and some old policies considerably modified.

First, entrance to teacher training-institutions must be based, not merely upon the completion of 15 units of secondary work, but also upon intelligence and high marks in the secondary school.

Second, the training school should give more recognition to personality traits as factors in successful teaching. Knowledge in this field is deplorably limited, but research workers are exploring the field. Already much valuable knowledge is extant. We need to learn to apply this knowledge to teacher training.

Third, we need to increase the amount, and improve the quality of professional training. The West Virginia State Survey[11] points out that teaching of educational psychology does not carry over very effectively into

[11] Survey of Education in West Virginia, Vol. II, p. 101.

practice. No doubt this is true to a considerable extent of teaching of other professional subjects. How can this be remedied? Perhaps, more hours of professional training would be an advantage, but the quality of teaching must be improved through better library facilities, psychological laboratories, better trained teachers, and by bridging the gap between the classroom and the training school. Also, we need to put more emphasis on the application of principles.

Fourth, in some cases the minimum requirements in the teaching field should be lowered, particularly in the second teaching field. High requirements are arbitrary and are not justified by research work in the field. Furthermore, the requirement in the second teaching field, in some cases, is as high as in the first teaching field. Apparently this requirement is made on the assumption that every teacher will teach in two fields and continue to teach in the same two fields. This assumption is contrary to fact.

CUBISTS IN THE TEACHING ART

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In the present rush to be scientific, many educators are no longer disposed to consider teaching an art. It seems fashionable to be a technologist rather than an artist. It is assumed, at any rate, that greater prestige will come to the "profession" of teaching if its work is scientific in nature rather than artistic. There are doubtless many educational scientists today who honestly believe that science in teaching is more effective in producing salutary results educationally than is art. These, of course, may not be blamed for expending their professional efforts on the side of science. But there appears to be a considerable group of others who merely feel that a science of education provides for them a more distinctive professional status and is therefore to be preferred to a traditional artistry of teaching which, they observe, has never won any large measure of public esteem for their craft.

Noting the prestige science has gained in other fields, such educators are ambitious to capitalize on its application to the problems of education. They see, among other advantages, the possibility of developing what Sir John Adams has called "arcana" for the teaching profession—stores of knowledge into which the general public may not penetrate, special techniques usable only within the borders of their craft. These "arcana" of scientific education, they believe, will refute the popular notion that "there is nothing to" teaching. Public underestimation of the teacher's position will give way to a public recognition of teaching as a profession ranking with medicine and engineering.

It is apparent that the new science of education, whether advanced by earnest scientists, pseudo-scientists, or ambitious educational mountebanks, is forcing upon the profession of teaching an avalanche of technicalities, formidable terms, and novel techniques that bewilder seasoned schoolmen, not to speak of the general public. Educators are hardly capable of assimilating such a mass of scientific methods and techniques as is thrust upon them. To some it is questionable, moreover, if scientific methods can be applied to education with the same success that they have been applied elsewhere. Not all are agreed that education as a science, even eventually, can replace education as an art. There is, therefore, no little confusion in educational thought today as a result of the many attempts to make it technical and scientific. Experienced educators are finding it increasingly difficult to express themselves on any educational topic or to declare a position on an educational issue without a considerable fear of ready criticism. Many excellent class-

room teachers, timid about declaring in favor of teaching as an art and yet unable to conceive of it as an out and out science, and aware, possibly, of the numerous conflicts and discrepancies in the educational psychologies of the day, hardly know which way to turn. There seem to be too many techniques available, too many expert wayshowers.

Walter Savage Landor once said that he who walks in the dark will be guided more safely by one large, clear light, though distant, than by many smaller lights which sparkle on both sides. Teachers, presumably still in the dark as to the very best way of teaching, find themselves now hemmed in by a multitude of small, sparkling side lights on the road to professional improvement; and many of them are finding it decidedly difficult to see any single, large clear light of purpose ahead. Some, indeed, admit that they see no light ahead at all. Not a few are so entranced by some little sparkling scintillation of scientific procedure at their feet that they do not choose, for the present at least, to look away from it.

The attempts to develop a "science of education" have so centered the attention of educational scientists on the *materials* of education that many of them have quite forgotten the ultimate purpose or end of education. They have lost their perspective; microscopy has impaired their macroscopic view. They know not in which direction they are going, even boasting, in some few cases, that they do not care to know whither they are going. They are somewhat like a group of little boys exploring a thick forest for the first time, not sure of their destination, but certain they can get there by themselves.

For the astronomer and the physicist or the technologist in some fields of applied science, such an attitude concerning the ultimate end of his work might be innocent enough, but for the educationist it cannot be said with surety to be safe or even helpful. The wider problems of the educator are vastly different from, and are far more significant socially than, those of the physical scientists. His are by far the most complex and baffling, and there seems to be no prospect at present that they will be very greatly simplified by an application of science to educational methods.

Education, like life, has an end in itself, a *raison d'être,* that is inexplicable in terms of material units or the "stuff" that physical scientists work with. Edmund Noble has written:

> "We have hitherto failed in our comprehension of life mainly because we have been involved in the absolute method of dealing with things—have been more intent on discovering what units are for themselves than in finding out how they are related to and influenced by the systems to which they belong."

The same thing obviously is true of many of the attempts at scientific research in education.

It often happens, too, that the knowledge which a developing educational science presents in one day becomes the ignorance of the next day. Yet not a few educational scientists are found to be positive, sure of themselves,

proud of the rock foundations on which their methods presumably rest. Occasionally these are found to be contemptuous of a mere philosophy of education or of any *art* in the teaching process. This, notwithstanding the fact that philosophy and some arts in teaching have made quite as notable contributions to pedagogy as has science.

True "form" in teaching has been in evidence in other generations than our own and at times when it did not have the aid of a science of education as we now know it. Dr. William C. Bagley illustrated this point very effectively when, in a hypothetical case of selecting a teacher for a small boy, he allowed a miracle to offer him the choice of Socrates or a recent graduate of Teachers College who had had the advantages of all the latest scientific training in education. Needless to say, Socrates was selected to be the teacher.

Woodrow Wilson, noteworthy educator as well as statesman, reminded us that science is capable of doing a great disservice as well as a service. It has, in his words, "bred in us a spirit of experiment and a contempt for the past. It has made us credulous of quick improvement, hopeful of discovering panaceas, confident of success in every new thing." The fault, obviously, is not so much in science itself as in the workings of some of the over-enthusiastic and unpracticed votaries of science. These are, to use Robert Andrews Millikan's appelation, "cubists," of whom there seem to be a goodly number in education.

No true seasoned scientist working in education is likely to declare that he can reach the highest levels of excellence in the teaching art solely by means of an application of scientific methods to education. Scientific formulas, he may be expected to say, do not meet the real, vital, and fundamental problems of education. The conscientious scientist is not sure enough of the ground on which he treads to allow for the positiveness characteristic of so many of the cubists. He recognizes that his work is necessarily quite superficial. He realizes, as Professor J. S. Haldane has said, that the world as represented in the language of physical science can only be a world of unreal abstractions and that if we mistake it for reality itself, we are only following a shadow.

J. W. N. Sullivan has written after years of profound investigation into the nature of matter that "it is quite possible that the actual substance of the universe is mental." Yet we have the mechanistic psychologists, to cite a single group of educational scientists, affirming with great vigor at times that everything must be explained in and by matter, that human behavior is entirely mechanistic, comparable to the behavior of a machine. They declare that man's activity consists solely of responses which are made without consciousness or volition on his part, to the stimuli of his environment—a thoroughly materialistic conception.

Other educational scientists and "cubists," working usually on the same physical basis, are well-night ubiquitous nowadays, and they pour forth in

amazing number their ukases, so often based upon "small increments of research." Such are the men who, again in the words of Woodrow Wilson, have "declined to reckon with spirit or with the stuffs of the mind" and who would make education "an affair of tasting and handling and smelling, and so create Philistia."

One may well be reminded here of the prediction made by Charles P. Steinmetz,—that the greatest discoveries in the next fifty years will be made along spiritual lines. The great mistake many of our educational scientists are now making lies in the fact that they are depending too much on the stability and fixedness and reality of the material units with which science must necessarily deal and are neglecting the *stuffs of the mind* with which science is woefully ignorant.

The educator who still uses such words as "consciousness" and "soul" really need not be so apologetic as he is prone to be at present. The words are not yet obsolete. It is entirely possible that they may come again into their own. Many data could be presented to show that not a few scientific men of the first rank are now doubting the existence of the units of material things as they are commonly known. Matter is very generally held by modern physicists to be fundamentally electrical in nature, not at all the substance that we have for so long thought it to be. Some physicists go as far as to say that matter is merely a mental force or that its smallest constituent parts are units of force. As time advances, it becomes more and more a subtle *stuff*, further and further removed from the effective analysis and manipulation of physical science.

Professor A. S. Eddington, who declares that physics has reduced the entire physical world to shadows and symbols, says very graphically: "If we eliminated all the unfilled space in a man's body and collected his protons and electrons into one mass, the man would be reduced to a speck just visible with a magnifying glass."

How difficult to reconcile a strictly materialistic psychology of education to such a concept of man! If such a hollow, substanceless creature does exist, then may not the philosopher in education be excused for believing that a person's behavior may be determined somewhat by his consciousness and that even his environment may be influenced by this same consciousness?

Quite recently J. Arthur Thompson wrote apropos to this subject:

> "To an extent previously unsuspected there is evidence of a mental aspect throughout the whole animal world . . . There is no possibility of describing the higher reaches of thinking, feeling, and purposing among men and women without allowing for the mental aspect as a *vera causa* that counts; and, despite the extreme behaviorists, it is impossible to draw any hard and fast line, above which there is ideation, emotion, and purposing but below which there is none . . . Thus there is dawning a new view that the whole of life and the whole ascent of life are interpenetrated with mind.
>
> "It is interesting to find that some of the leaders in modern physical investigation seem more willing than their predecessors to leave room for a breath

> of spontaneity in their deterministic schemes. After a long circuit there is a return toward the old truth: In the beginning was Mind."

Whether one thinks of mind as the "plus energy or element" of life, a "correlate and an emergent of life" or as a "central synthetic power," it is beginning to seem reasonably safe to assume that something of this sort functions somewhere and somehow in life. It must be admitted, of course, that for the present it is futile to attempt an explanation of just how such functioning takes place.

In the meantime it might be well for some few of the cubists in education not to insist too strongly that the techniques of their art preclude the possibility of trying to work with things mental and spiritual in nature. These may be, after all, the things that are most real.

The direction that the expression of the teaching art will take in the next fifty years can only be predicted. It is possible that it will tend towards the spiritual, and that important spiritual discoveries will be made which will make education a much more efficacious institution than it now is. For the present it is to be hoped that no one school of method will presume to take a self-assigned front-rank position and contumeliously regard its rivals. In the quest for the perfect "form" in teaching, there should be allowed to each experimenter the greatest possible latitude and freedom. Only by their fruits should the differing schools of methods be judged.

If, then, the philosopher-teacher, the artist-teacher—or, for that matter, any other type of teacher—believes that he sees a guiding light of a true and permanent standard ahead, however far away it may seem to be, he should be allowed, by all means, to go in that direction. As long as he is moving conscientiously and with some earnest purpose, it is not likely that he will greatly impair the quality of our teaching; and the psychologists,—chief pattern makers in educational methods in recent times,—among whom there is so much confusion and disagreement about the results of their own work, should be the first to grant him the right to make his explorations, even though such explorations take him through unchartered regions and even though he chooses to go without a full stock of instruments and techniques approved by the modern science of pedagogy.

PROFESSIONAL PROGRESS OF TEACHERS COLLEGE TEACHERS

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One of the outstanding developments of the teachers college is the increased training now demanded of its faculty. In the old normal schools many teachers had no degree and the Bachelor's degree was the rule. Now there are very few, except in the special subjects such as music and art, who do not hold the Master's degree; while the Doctor's degree is being demanded of department heads at least.

In 1917, according to President Hendricks,[1] the percentages of teachers in state teacher training institutions holding the various degrees were as follows: no degree, 33 per cent; Bachelor's, 40 per cent; Master's, 22 per cent; Doctor's, 4 per cent. Ten years later, according to the same writer, the percentages were: no degree, 10 per cent; Bachelor's, 40 per cent; Master's, 43 per cent; Doctor's, 7 per cent. These figures indicate the decided upward trend in the training of the faculties of teachers colleges. It is safe to assume that the rate of increase in improvement has been more rapid during the last five years than ever before.

In the face of the demands made by the accrediting and standardizing agencies, how have the teachers in continuous service acquitted themselves? Have they continued merely to hang on, passive, hoping for the best and fearing the worst? Or have they been active, sensing the potentialities of the situation, striving by leaves of absence, summer sessions, and the like, to improve their training to meet the newer requirements? In almost every issue of the publications of the various teachers colleges one may see items to the effect that one or more teachers have been granted leave of absence for a summer, a semester, or a year. It would seem, then, that many of these teachers are making determined efforts to keep in step with the forward movement.

In order to determine with a fair degree of accuracy the extent to which the teachers in continuous service in teachers colleges have advanced their professional training, an investigation of the degrees earned by them in the five-year period, 1924-1929, was made. In this study only those teachers were considered who had held their present positions for the five-year period or longer. No attempt was made to measure either the rate or the extent

[1] E. L. Hendricks: *Progress in the Qualifications and Salaries of Teachers in Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges.*

of the improvement of whole college faculties by the addition of more highly trained teachers, but simply the improvement of teachers in continuous service.

To secure the desired information, letters were sent to the presidents of sixty-five state teachers colleges asking the numbers of teachers who had held their present positions for the last five years or longer, and the numbers of these who had secured a degree in that period. A total of forty-eight replies was received from the presidents of colleges situated in twenty-one states. The colleges, listed by location, follow:

Flagstaff, Ariz.	Mt. Pleasant, Mich.	Tahlequah, Okla.
Tempe, Ariz.	Ypsilanti, Mich.	Johnson City, Tenn.
Conway, Ark.	Cleveland, Miss.	Memphis, Tenn.
Greeley, Colo.	Cape Girardeau, Mo.	Alpine, Texas
Gunnison, Colo.	Kirksville, Mo.	Canyon, Texas
Athens, Ga.	Warrensburg, Mo.	Commerce, Texas
Milledgeville, Ga.	Chadron, Neb.	Denton, Texas
Carbondale, Ill.	Kearney, Neb.	Huntsville, Texas
De Kalb, Ill.	Wayne, Neb.	San Marcos, Texas
Muncie, Ind.	Cullowhee, N. C.	East Radford, Va.
Terre Haute, Ind.	Greenville, N. C.	Farmville, Va.
Cedar Falls, Iowa	Bowling Green, Ohio	Harrisonburg, Va.
Emporia, Kan.	Kent, Ohio	Athens, W. Va.
Bowling Green, Ky.	Oxford, Ohio	Fairmont, W. Va.
Richmond, Ky.	Ada, Okla.	Huntington, W. Va.
Marquette, Mich.	Edmond, Okla.	Shepherdstown, W. Va.

To facilitate comparison of the progress made by the teachers in the different sections of the country, the states were divided into three groups: Southern, including Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia; Midwestern, including Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Missouri, and Ohio; Western, including Arizona, Colorado, Kansas, Nebraska, Oklahoma, and Texas. The Southern states were represented by seventeen colleges, the Midwestern states by fourteen colleges, and the Western states by seventeen colleges.

The results of the study are given in the table below:

	I	II	III	IV	V
	Total number teachers reported	Number and per cent receiving bachelor's degree	Number and per cent receiving master's degree	Number and per cent receiving doctor's degree	Number and per cent receiving any degree
Southern States (17 colleges).....	430	41	82	23	146
		9.53%	19.07%	5.36%	33.96%
Midwestern states (14 colleges)....	641	38	112	26	176
		5.93%	17.47%	4.06%	27.46%
Western states (17 colleges).....	641	37	156	42	235
		5.77%	24.34%	6.55%	36.66%
All states (48 colleges)	1712	116	350	91	557
		6.77%	20.45%	5.31%	32.54%

It will be noted that within the group almost one teacher out of three secured a degree within the five-year period. The Master's degrees comprise

62.8 per cent of the total number, the Bachelor's, 20.9 per cent, and the Doctor's degrees, 16.3 per cent. These are very encouraging signs. The indications are that the teachers in question are not inactive but, on the contrary, are alert, constantly seeking to better themselves professionally. This is all the more impressive when one considers that the figures presented are minimal rather than maximal. Probably during this period many other teachers pursued additional work which is not shown as it did not lead to degrees.

The data indicate that the Western states rank first in percentage of improvement, the Southern states second, and the Midwestern states third. This ranking is somewhat surprising, perhaps, in view of the idea of progress generally associated with the Midwestern states. A possible solution may be that, before 1924, the teachers of the Middlewest already possessed professional training higher than the average for the country as a whole and would naturally show a lower percentage of improvement during the period considered in this investigation. This explanation is in harmony with the fact that the teachers college movement spread early to the Midwestern states.

In conclusion it may be stated that, regardless of which group of states has evinced the greatest improvement, the general fact is obvious that the teachers in continuous service in state teachers colleges are making substantial advances in professional training and are keenly alert to the spirit of progress which today pervades the whole field of teacher-training.

AN EXPERIMENT WITH THE TYPE STUDY

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The type study, as the term is understood by those who are familiar with it, and as it is used in this experiment, was put into its present form by Dr. Charles A. McMurry. For more than forty years Dr. McMurry taught the principles of the type study to teachers and prospective teachers. To show that the principles were sound, he put them into practice. He taught what he believed and practiced what he taught.

The specific problem undertaken in this experiment is to determine, objectively, whether the type study method of teaching history is as good as or better than the traditional textbook method.

The experiment was conducted throughout the school year, 1927-1928 in the Ellerbe Graded School, Ellerbe, North Carolina, and involved the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades in American History.

Preliminary to the experiment, the pupils involved were given the National Intelligence Test, Scale A, Forms 1 and 2. Using the scores made in these tests each grade was divided into two equivalent groups.

A room was set apart for the experiment, and a schedule arranged so that the recitations came consecutively—beginning with section 1 of the fifth grade and ending with section 2 of the seventh grade. About the middle of the year sections 1 and 2 in each grade were interchanged. In order to eliminate teacher differences the experimentor taught all the sections. The principal allowed no one to enter the room during recitations, and there were no interruptions that might have affected the results. Due to the schedule of the regular teachers, periods of only thirty minutes were available for the recitations.

As soon as the work was well under way preliminary tests were given in American History. The tests used were the Van Wagenen American History Scales. Grades five and six were given General Information Scale S1, and grade seven was given General Information Scale S2. At the end of the year Scale R1 was given to the fifth and sixth grades and R2 to the seventh. The initial and final scores for each grade are given in tables I, II, and III, respectively.

In the actual teaching of the sections extreme care was taken not to break over from one method to the other. Section 1 in each grade was arbitrarily chosen as the type study section. Section 2 in each case studied the state adopted texts. The fifth grade used Thompson, *A First Book in United*

States History; the sixth grade used Hill, *Young People's History of North Carolina;* and the seventh grade used Thompson, *A History of the People of the United States.* In these sections the textbooks were the absolute guides. Only the first period in American History was covered—from the discovery of America to the beginning of the new government under the constitution.

In the type study sections the work was based on the type study pamphlets written by Dr. McMurry and his son. An outline of the work of the type study sections follows:

I. Discovereres and Explorers
   1. Columbus
   2. John Cabot
   3. Vasco da Gama
   4. Balboa
   5. Magellan
   6. Verrazano
   7. Cartier
   8. Henry Hudson

II. Colonizers
   1. Walter Raleigh
   2. John Smith
   3. Samuel Champlain
   4. John Popham
   5. William Bradford

III. Early Explorers
   1. La Salle on the Mississippi
   2. Marquette
   3. Joliet

IV. Life in the Colonies
   1. The Virginia Plantation
   2. The New England Town

V. Growth of the Colonies
   1. John Winthrop and the Growth of Representative Government
   2. Roger Williams
   3. Thomas Hooker
   4. William Penn

VI. William Penn and the Quakers

VII. Benjamin Franklin and Social Service

VIII. Washington, Franklin and others in the French and Indian War.

IX. Pioneers
   1. Daniel Boone in Kentucky
   2. James Robertson
   3. John Sevier
   4. George Rogers Clark

X. The Revolutionary War

XI. The Treaty of Paris

XII. Making the Constitution

The first person or incident was studied thoroughly by each of the type study sections. Related ones were studied more briefly and were later compared with the first one, which served as the type. An attempt was made to lead logically from one topic to the next. For instance, in going from the topic on discoverers to that of colonizers, this question was asked: "After a country has been discovered, what is the natural thing for the people who discovered it to try to do?" The answer was: "They would try to settle it."

Type study pamphlets were available for only four of the twelve topics. Information on the remaining topics was taken from the texts used in the other sections, Dr. McMurry's two books, *Pioneers on Land and Sea* and *Pioneers in the Mississippi Valley,* and three other books that were borrowed for the purpose. The school library contained no books that were suitable for reference work. Since most of the information used in these sections

had not been organized and put into pamphlet form, a complete outline of each topic was written on the blackboard.

The actual time devoted to the experiment was approximately seven months. This allowed an average of slightly more than two weeks for each of the twelve large topics studied. However, no topic was confined to a definite period of time. As soon as the pupils proved that they had gained a fair knowledge of one topic another was introduced.

Tests were given to all sections at intervals throughout the year, in order to stimulate the pupils. The results of these tests, however, are not reported in this summary.

At the end of the year three series of tests were given. Van Wagenen's General Information Scales R1 and R2 have been mentioned. The second consisted of Information Scale C1 for grades five and six, and Information Scale C2 for grade seven, by the same author. These scales are designed to cover the first period of American History. The third consisted of two

TABLE I

INITIAL AND FINAL SCORES MADE BY THE FIFTH GRADE ON VAN WAGENEN HISTORY SCALES, S1 AND R1

FIFTH GRADE SCORES				
PUPIL	TYPE-STUDY SECTION		TEXTBOOK SECTION	
	Initial Sc.	Final Sc.	Initial Sc.	Final Sc.
1	47.5	66.5	44.5	75.5
2	57.0	61.0	44.5	68.0
3	52.5	70.0	43.5	45.0
4	50.0	68.0	52.5	68.0
5	49.0	66.0	43.0	64.0
6	60.0	62.0	57.0	63.5
7	52.5	68.0	50.0	67.5
8	58.0	65.0	43.0	53.0
9	60.0	64.0	52.0	52.0
10	54.0	57.0	43.0	54.0
11	43.0	50.0	46.5	49.0
12	49.0	62.5	59.0	66.5
13	55.0	63.0	43.0	57.0
14	45.0	55.0	49.5	57.5
15	53.5	57.0	52.0	54.5
16	60.0	67.0	51.0	52.0
17	60.0	67.0	55.0	59.5
18	55.5	64.0	55.0	57.0
19	57.0	66.0	50.0	52.0
Mean	53.6± .79	63.1± .78	49.2± .78	58.7±1.29
S. D.	5.1± .56	5.0± .56	5.0± .56	7.7± .85
r	.41± .12		.16± .13	

hundred questions of the true-false type. The same set of questions was given to all sections. Every question in this series was taken from material that all the sections had covered. Results of these tests are shown in tables IV, V, and VI.

In order to test the pupils' abilities of organization, they were asked to write the story of Sir Walter Raleigh. The resulting papers were graded by a person who knew none of the pupils and who knew nothing about the different sections. The results appear in table VII.

According to the scores in Table I both sections of the fifth grade gained an average of 9.5 points during the year. The coefficients of correlation are not significant. However, three of the standard deviations have practically the same value.

TABLE II

INITIAL AND FINAL SCORES MADE BY THE SIXTH GRADE ON VAN WAGENEN HISTORY SCALES S1 AND R1

	SIXTH GRADE SCORES			
PUPIL	TYPE-STUDY SECTION		TEXTBOOK SECTION	
	Initial Sc.	Final Sc.	Initial Sc.	Final Sc
1	68.5	74.0	63.5	64.5
2	73.0	76.5	61.0	70.0
3	80.5	89.0	64.0	67.0
4	59.5	74.0	64.0	65.5
5	63.0	71.5	54.5	59.0
6	58.5	64.5	62.0	69.5
7	56.0	62.5	49.5	50.5
8	55.5	57.5	67.0	70.0
9	60.0	61.0	65.0	69.5
10	61.5	66.0	52.5	65.0
11	59.0	66.5	64.0	67.5
12	58.5	64.0	64.0	67.0
13	54.5	75.0	66.0	66.0
14	66.5	69.0	57.0	66.5
15	66.5	70.0	62.5	60.0*
16	70.0	75.0	64.4	67.0
17	58.5	64.5	55.0	59.5
18	60.0	70.0	53.0	47.0*
19	61.5	62.5	67.5	70.0
20	60.0	69.0	54.5	58.0
21	55.0	45.0*	45.0	58.0
22	47.5	55.0	48.0	50.0
23	45.0	52.0	63.0	65.0
24	60.0	68.0	50.0	52.0
25	58.0	65.0	45.0	48.0
26	53.0	58.0	52.0	55.0
Mean	60.3± .96	66.3±1.20	57.9± .92	61.8± .96
S. D.	7.3± .68	8.7± .81	6.9± .64	7.3± .68
r	.82± .03		82.± .04	

Table II shows that Section 1 of the sixth grade gained 6.0 points as against a gain of 3.9 for Section 2. The coefficients of correlation, the standard deviations, and the probable errors indicate that the difference in achievement is significant.

TABLE III

INITIAL AND FINAL SCORES MADE BY SEVENTH GRADE ON VAN WAGENEN HISTORY SCALES S2 AND R2

	SEVENTH GRADE SCORES			
PUPIL	TYPE-STUDY SECTION		TEXTBOOK SECTION	
	Initial Sc.	Final Sc.	Initial Sc.	Final Sc.
1	66.5	63.0*	66.0	65.0*
2	64.0	70.0	68.0	70.0
3	66.0	67.5	63.5	75.0
4	68.0	75.5	59.5	65.5
5	56.0	60.0	60.5	64.0
6	62.0	63.0	66.0	72.5
7	60.5	51.0*	70.5	66.0*
8	63.5	66.5	43.5	60.5
9	60.0	65.0	60.5	66.5
10	52.0	62.0	50.0	54.0
11	60.5	65.0	52.0	55.5
12	65.0	68.5	68.5	74.0
13	60.0	63.5	66.0	75.0
Mean	61.9± .81	64.7±1.01	61.1±1.69	66.5±1.29
S. D.	4.3± .57	5.5± .72	7.8±1.02	5.7± .75
r	.55± .13		.65± .10	

In the seventh grade (Table III) the type study section gained an average of 2.8 points while the textbook section gained an average of 5.4 points. However, the units of measurement in this case do not appear to be as significant as those in the previous table. As in the previous case, no reason is advanced concerning the fact that two pupils in each section made lower scores on the final tests than they made on the initial test.

According to Table IV the type study section of the fifth grade shows a mean score of 64.7 on the standard test against 60.0 for the textbook section, while the mean scores on the true-false tests are the same. The measures of validity here are fairly significant. The coefficients of correlation were worked out between these tests in order to test the validity of the true-false tests.

The results in the sixth grade (Table V) show the mean scores to be in favor of the type study group by a difference of 3.4 points on the standard test and a difference of 2.0 points on the true-false test.

In the seventh grade (Table VI) the textbook section leads by 1.4 on the standard test and 1.0 on the true-false test.

Here the type study groups scored slightly higher than the textbook groups.

So far as the results of this experiment are concerned, the type study method of teaching American History has a slight advantage over the textbook method in the fifth and sixth grades. However, the situation is reversed in the seventh grade.

Because of the limitations of this experiment, no definite conclusions can be drawn. If, however, an experiment of this kind could be conducted over a period of three years, so that the three periods of American History could be covered by the type study groups, it is believed that some definite conclusions could be established.

TABLE IV

FINAL SCORES MADE BY THE FIFTH GRADE ON VAN WAGENEN HISTORY SCALE C1 AND TRUE-FALSE

	FIFTH-GRADE SCORES			
PUPIL	TYPE-STUDY SECTION		TEXTBOOK SECTION	
	C1	T-F	C1	T-F
1	60.0	68.0	78.0	83.0
2	69.5	63.0	71.5	75.0
3	68.0	51.0	65.0	54.0
4	70.0	64.0	69.0	62.0
5	68.0	60.0	61.0	68.0
6	68.0	63.0	57.5	65.0
7	70.5	72.0	72.5	83.0
8	68.5	82.0	46.0	40.0
9	61.0	45.0	56.5	57.0
10	65.5	60.0	52.0	43.0
11	62.0	65.0	58.5	51.0
12	60.0	28.0	68.0	58.0
13	62.0	57.0	62.5	57.0
14	60.0	58.0	43.5	33.0
15	60.5	55.0	52.0	46.0
16	68.5	51.0	52.0	44.0
17	62.0	54.0	63.5	52.0
18	61.5	39.0	51.5	57.0
19	63.0	51.0	51.0	60.0
Mean	64.7± .59	57.0±1.80	60.0±1.43	57.0±2.04
S. D.	3.8± .42	11.7±1.28	9.2±1.01	13.2±1.43
r	.50± .10		.83± .04	

TABLE V

FINAL SCORES MADE BY THE SIXTH GRADE ON VAN WAGENEN HISTORY SCALE C1 AND TRUE-FALSE TEST

	SIXTH-GRADE SCORES			
PUPIL	TYPE-STUDY SECTION		TEXTBOOK SECTION	
	C1	T-F	C1	T-F
1	76.0	75.0	69.0	71.0
2	84.5	89.0	77.0	83.0
3	80.5	81.0	74.0	60.0
4	79.5	86.0	71.5	71.0
5	74.0	74.0	70.0	83.0
6	70.0	77.0	68.0	59.0
7	67.0	71.0	67.0	55.0
8	64.0	52.0	73.0	66.0
9	72.0	73.0	74.5	75.0
10	64.5	66.0	73.0	52.0
11	68.5	65.0	65.0	62.0
12	63.5	52.0	65.0	61.0
13	79.5	76.0	71.0	65.0
14	68.0	61.0	70.5	66.0
15	70.0	70.0	63.0	62.0
16	69.0	67.0	68.5	54.0
17	57.0	72.0	60.0	63.0
18	65.0	54.0	64.5	67.0
19	67.0	55.0	68.0	60.0
20	67.0	60.0	68.0	63.0
21	40.5	34.0	49.5	25.0
22	69.5	57.0	51.0	63.0
23	63.0	62.0	66.5	68.0
24	70.0	65.0	62.0	60.0
25	69.0	43.0	54.0	59.0
26	67.5	39.0	64.5	54.0
Mean	69.9± .95	64.5±1.70	66.5± .88	62.5±1.42
S. D.	7.2± .67	13.0±1.22	6.7± .62	10.7±1.00
r	.75± .06		.64± .08	

TABLE VI

FINAL SCORES MADE BY THE SEVENTH GRADE ON VAN WAGENEN HISTORY SCALE C1 AND TRUE-FALSE TEST

	SEVENTH-GRADE SCORES			
PUPIL	TYPE-STUDY SECTION		TEXTBOOK SECTION	
	C1	T-F	C1	T-F
1	63.5	70.0	72.5	70.0
2	70.5	80.0	66.0	85.0
3	66.5	80.0	74.0	81.0
4	76.5	84.0	63.5	62.0
5	70.0	80.0	63.0	65.0
6	67.0	71.0	76.0	79.0
7	57.5	51.0	63.5	69.0
8	70.0	80.0	64.0	72.0
9	62.5	65.0	59.0	72.0
10	57.5	57.0	60.0	46.0
11	60.0	49.0	58.5	40.0
12	71.0	82.0	80.5	84.0
13	61.5	46.0	72.5	78.0
Mean	65.8±1.05	68.5±2.50	67.2±1.30	69.5±2.40
S. D.	5.6± .74	13.3±1.70	7.0± .93	13.2±1.70
r	.88± .04		.66± .11	

TABLE VII

RESULTS OF SCORES MADE BY ALL SECTIONS ON THE STORY OF SIR WALTER RALEIGH

	5–1[1]	5–2	6–1	6–2	7–1	7–2
Mean	83	82	82	78	86	82
P. E.	1.4	1.4	1.0	.88	1.4	1.1
S. D.	9.1	9.4	7.7	5.8	5.7	6.1
P. E.	.91	1.00	.72	.66	1.00	.81

[1] 5-1 is the type-study section of the fifth grade; 5-2 is the textbook section of the fifth grade; similarly for grades six and seven.

MEANS FOR SCHOOL PUBLICITY UTILIZED BY PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES

W. W. CARPENTER
University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri

Deans and other officers interested in the public relations program of the junior college are often kept busy devising plans that will interest their communities in the problems of the junior college. A junior college that has been established after a careful study of the various factors of probable success, does not always survive unless the community takes an active interest in it and supports its activities.

The public junior colleges use various means of securing interest and support. Among those most frequently used, as indicated by a recent investigation of forty-six junior colleges, are the following:

1. Co-operation with the local newspaper
2. Co-operation with civic organizations
3. Publication of bulletins of information
4. Open house programs
5. Use of the radio
6. The teacher in the classroom[1]

Co-operation with the Local Newspaper

The public junior college receives the co-operation of the local newspapers in many ways. Items of interest concerning the junior college activities are printed as news. Events on the school calendar, social, athletic, and scholastic, are often featured. Paid newspaper advertising is used by some of the junior colleges; in a few instances, the cost of this has been borne by business concerns or civic organizations.

The following advertisement which appeared in a home-town paper is an interesting example of a business concern boosting the local junior college:

"WILL YOUR SON
OR DAUGHTER GO
TO COLLEGE? . . .

> "The opening of school is just around the corner. Parents of Jefferson City boys and girls, who are ready for higher education are now planning how they may obtain it.
>
> Many worthy youngsters will be out of school, definitely, and for all time, this fall. Their parents are unable to send them away to school and are forced to place them at work, in offices or factories.
>
> If you are the parent of a high school graduate do not forget that Jefferson City maintains a Junior College right here in your own home town.

[1]The first five are taken from Carpenter, W. W., and Carter, W. R., "The Duties of the Dean of the Public Junior College," *Peabody Journal of Education*, (January, 1930), Vol. VII, pp. 218-223.

It is a qualified institution, capably directed and offering valuable courses to those who will take advantage of them. The Junior College idea is accepted as the BEST course for high school graduates to take, everywhere in America. Jefferson City Junior College ranks with the finest that may be found anywhere.

Do not delude yourself concerning this institution. It is superior in every respect. If your son or daughter can live at home, and go to school, he can enter college this fall."

By

THE FIRST NATIONAL BANK
Of Jefferson City, (Fall—1929)[1]

The advertisement appearing above was paid for by the business concern indicated. It was not solicited by any member of the junior college staff. It indicates a very cordial feeling on the part of the business men of Jefferson City toward their junior college.

Co-operation with Civic Organizations

A very cordial relation exists between civic organizations and the junior colleges. The civic organizations see the advantage of having college facilities available at home. They recognize that from the business standpoint the junior college offers a bid for a very desirable type of transient and provides another way to keep in the home town the money that is spent by the two-year college student. Civic organizations co-operate in many ways, from arranging for part-time work for students to raising funds for the payment of salaries. In a recent study, Duncan lists the following as among the ways that civic organizations co-operate with the junior colleges:

TABLE I

Types of Co-operation Received by Junior Colleges from Chambers of Commerce and Service Clubs

1. Assist students to find part-time work.
2. Actively support legislation for state aid for junior college.
3. Arrange for free advertising in local papers.
4. Furnish funds or assist in raising funds for the following:
   - (a) Advertise athletic teams
   - (b) Bleachers for athletic field
   - (c) Bulletin of information on the junior college
   - (d) College glee club trips
   - (e) Entire support for first two years
   - (f) Equip laboratories
   - (g) Equip libraries
   - (h) General budget
   - (i) Light fixtures for home economics
   - (j) Prizes for oratorical contest
   - (k) Publication of college paper
   - (l) Salaries of teachers
   - (m) Scholarships
   - (n) Student loan fund
   - (o) Track meet
   - (p) Wire fence around athletic field
5. Furnish cars for athletic teams.
6. Make talks for the junior college on request.

[1] Furnished by Superintendent W. F. Knox of Jefferson City, Missouri.

7. Recommend the junior college to the people.
8. Sell tickets for junior college activities.
9. Send bulletins to prospective students.
10. Support junior college in all activities.
11. Support bonds for building and equipment.[3]

Publication of Bulletins of Information

While not a very large number of public junior colleges have availed themselves of this means, yet those that use it have done so with decided success. It offers a personal appeal to the parent as well as to the student. It can present to a selected audience the attitude of educators, it can present the experience of other cities, and it can point out what the local college is doing.

One private college used a unique method in the construction of its news bulletin: the inside pages were devoted entirely to a reprint of an article by Professor W. C. Eells of Stanford University, entitled "Fad or Fixture?"

The use of such material offers many opportunities. Many of the problems arising in the minds of parents of prospective students can be answered by well-selected abstracts of research that have already been completed. As an example of this, assume that the question in the mind of the parent is whether the graduate of the junior college is able to succeed in future work at one of our better universities. Professor Eells has made extensive research in the records of those Stanford University students who had the first two years of college in a junior college and those who had the first two years in Leland Stanford University, California. One of his conclusions is as follows:

> "In their two years of residence the junior college group, after their first quarter, show superiority to a comparable group of students who have had their previous academic work in the university; this superiority increases markedly in each successive quarter of residence."[4]

The use of the conclusions of research will be of value in creating an opinion on the type of work that a junior college can do. Caution must be used, however, to make it clear that the students who attended Stanford with junior college credits came from schools where the community had been willing to co-operate by adequate financial support. Merely adding two years to the curriculum of a high school without raising requirements of teachers or standards does not insure the success of students in further educational work.

Another idea that might well be included in the public junior college bulletin is a discussion of the popularizing function of the junior college. This is explained by Proctor as follows:

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[3]Taken from Duncan, E. C., How Communities Support Junior Colleges, A mimeographed study; 35 junior colleges co-operated, March, 1929. (Frequencies and amounts are omitted here.)

[4]W. C. Eells, Records of Junior College Graduates at Stanford University, *Ninth Annual Meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges,* (December, 1928), pp. 3-21.

> "Just as the term 'popular' government signifies one through which the people's needs and aspirations find responsive consideration, so 'popular' education, at least in the elementary and high schools, has connoted an endeavor to provide the best possible type of educational opportunities for 'all the children of all the people.' In the same sense the junior college should be the 'people's college,' presenting the highest local form of popular education."[5]

The popularizing function of the junior college may be further revealed to a community by an age-grade study of its students. Such a study was made by Martin and Miller by comparing a standard private junior college with public junior colleges.[6] The private junior college was one whose student body was somewhat highly selected. The public junior colleges used for comparison were the three nearest institutions which made up an approximately equal number of students. The study consolidated the enrollments of the three public junior colleges. A comparison of the percentage of under age, over age, and normal age pupils reveals an interesting fact. A large percentage of private junior college pupils are under age, while a large percentage of the public junior college pupils are over age for their grades. The percentages normal for their ages were about the same. Instead of indicating an undesirable situation for the public junior college, it is pointed out that this is another way in which the junior college is fulfilling its popularizing function in the community. These junior colleges which are attracting the students who have been out of school for two, five, ten, and even twenty years are filling a place in the community that could not be filled in any other way.

This same fact is brought out very clearly by the following abstract from a junior college report:[7]

TABLE II

CHRONOLOGICAL AGES OF STUDENTS FOR COLLEGE YEAR 1928-1929

Age	Total Enrolled	Age	Total Enrolled
16	5	31	2
17	49	32	2
18	110	33	1
19	94	34	1
20	50	35	2
21	27	37	1
22	9	38	3
23	11	44	2
24	5	52	1
25	1	61	2
26	2	Unknown	1
28	1		
30	2	Total	384

[5]Wm. M. Proctor, *The Junior College*, p. 18, Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California, 1927.

[6]Charles W. Martin and James C. Miller, An Age-Grade Study of a Private and Three Public Junior Colleges. An unpublished article prepared at the University of Missouri, 1929.

[7]Taken from H. A. Cross, Report of the Dean of the Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona, June, 1929, p. 24.

Maximum age	61
Minimum age	16
Number over 40	6
Number over 30	20
Number over 20	76

The fact that there are seventy-six people enrolled in this junior college who are beyond the age of twenty, which is the normal age to complete the junior college, emphasizes the service that this school is offering to its community.

This same report, in another way, shows that this school is emphasizing the popularizing function in that the parents of its students represent practically all of the occupations of the city. The students of this junior college represent the entire community and not a part of the community. This is shown by the following table:

TABLE III

"Occupations of Parents, Guardians, Husbands and Wives of Students Registered for the College Year 1928-1929

"At the time of registration each student is asked to list the name of some person who is either the nearest relative or who will be responsible for him in case of accident, etc. Nineteen guardians, 246 fathers, 106 mothers, six husbands, and seven wives were listed. In no case were two of the persons recorded for the same student.

Architect	1	Homemaker	93	Policeman	2
Banker	3	Insurance	1	Postmaster	3
Barber	2	Janitor	1	Prin. High School	1
Bookkeeper	7	Jeweler	1	Proprietor	12
Business Executive	10	Judge	1	Railroad	3
Carpenter, Contractor	9	Laborer	8	Realtor	5
Cashier	1	Lawyer	7	Retired	16
Clerk	4	Lumber dealer	1	Rock and Sand Dealer	1
Collector	2	Manufacturer	2	Salesman	24
Cook	1	Manager	7	Secretary	5
Dairymen	2	Meat cutter	1	Sheepman	1
Dealer in Books	1	Mechanic	11	Sheriff	1
Dentist	3	Merchant	8	Stenographer	4
Doctor	5	Miner	1	Student	2
Draftsman	1	Minister	6	Superintendent	3
Druggist	4	None	6	Taxi Driver	1
Dry Cleaner	1	Nurse	5	Teacher	11
Editor	1	Osteopath	2	Telephone Co.	1
Engineer	14	Painter	2	Truck Dealer	1
Farmer	35	Pav. Contractor	2	Undertaker	1
Financier	1	Photographer	2	Waiter	1
Grocer	4	Plasterer	2	Znajero	2
		Plumber	1		

"The table represents a cross section of the occupations of the adults of Phoenix and vicinity. At a glance it can be seen that the parents of the students do not represent a single class. They represent a large number of the possible occupations found in Phoenix.

"Eighty-two out of the 106 mothers and seven or all of the wives are homemakers. The occupations in the order of the largest number of fathers engaged therein are:

1. Farmer
2. Salesman
3. Retired
4. Engineer
5. Proprietor
6. Mechanic

"From the above findings, it is evident that the students are a cosmopolitan group and that the Junior College is truly the people's college."[8]

Another report from the same junior college dean indicates that the students of this junior college recognize that there is an advantage in living at home while going to college. This is indicated as follows:

TABLE IV

DO STUDENTS FEEL THAT IT IS AN ADVANTAGE TO LIVE AT HOME WHILE GOING TO COLLEGE?

	Men	Women	Total
Yes	120	111	231
No.	30	25	55

"The above figures were secured in reply to the question: 'Do you feel that it is an advantage to live at home while you are going to college?'

"Two hundred eighty-six replies were received to this question, of which 231 were in the affirmative and 55 in the negative. This gives 81 per cent of the students replying in the affirmative, while 19 per cent reply to the effect that they do not believe that it is an advantage to live at home while going to college.

"That is is an advantage to live at home while attending college was given as one of the early reasons for the creation and existence of a junior college, and now we find that it has come to be accepted, not only by the parents, but by the students as well."[9]

These examples from bulletins and reports indicate the many possibilities of creating a friendly feeling between the community and the junior college.

THE OPEN HOUSE PROGRAM

The usual open house program has not been used extensively by the junior college. Conducting special exercises for the general public, which might consist of supper in the cafeteria, exhibits of the products of the shops and laboratories, a visit to the classrooms, and a short entertainment, offers a valuable way to gain the confidence of the parents and patrons.

The graduation exercises could be so conducted that they would have the same effect as an open house program. The superintendent of Pasadena, California, was kind enough to send a picture of the annual graduation exercises of the Pasadena High School and Junior College, held in June, 1928 at the famous Rose Bowl in Pasadena. Attended by 50,000 persons, every detail was worked out with the precision of a play or a pageant. The huge stage on one side of the stadium seated the graduates and speakers. Just above the stage a mass of students clothed in red, white, or blue gave the effect of an enormous American flag. The exercises were clearly understood by all by the use of amplifiers. There is no doubt that this spectacular ceremony left an impression on the minds of the thousands who were present.

[8]Taken from H. A. Cross, Report of the Dean of Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona, June, 1929, p. 33.

[9]Taken from H. A. Cross, Opinion of Students Concerning the Junior College, Mimeographed Report, February, 1930, p. 9.

Use of the Radio

There was only one public junior college which indicated that use was made of the radio in their community relations program. Stephens Junior College, a private institution, owns and operates its own station. The radio will become increasingly important as a means of junior college publicity.

The Teachers in the Classroom

One of the best ways to establish desirable community relations and win popular support is to select a teaching staff that is first, well trained in the particular fields; second, interested in young people and in their problems; and third, interested in the popularizing function of the junior college as well as its preparatory and terminal functions. The following statement relative to the importance of the public school teacher in community relations applies equally well to the junior college teacher:

> "It seems to me that the greatest factor in school publicity is the classroom teachers. The classroom teacher, who has the human point of view, who can sense the individual differences in girls and boys and who can make her schoolroom such that the children are sorry to go home and eager to get back—such a teacher is the greatest advertising factor in our school system. When principals and supervisors alike can have this same attitude and can give appreciation to it in their activities, the public will never fail to support the schools in time of need. When parents have the assurance of this wholesome care and instruction of their children, we need have no fear as to the support of the schools. Thus the classroom teachers is the keystone in the arch of publicity."[10]

The information in this paper has been presented in the hope that it will be helpful to deans or their assistants who are responsible for the public relations program. It is not suggested that any one school use all of these means, but that from the list those be selected which may be used in a particular community.

A community relations program is a necessity.[11] The school that takes the community into its confidence will succeed.

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[10]H. C. Koch and P. R. Stevenson, "Is the Teacher a Publicist?" *Ohio Educational Research Bulletin*, (March 3, 1926), pp. 100-102.

[11]C. M. Hill, "The Publicity Program of the Small College," *School and Society*, (August 4, 1928), Vol. XXVIII, pp. 147-152.

EDITORIAL

AMERICA'S GREATEST PROBLEM

Since the beginning of the great war in 1913, the world has undergone many changes, both social and financial. In America, experimentation, noble and otherwise, has been carried on to a degree that makes the rest of the world stand aghast. The range has seemingly been without limit. Political nostrums have been handed out most liberally in an attempt to placate the discordant elements.

A year ago America was on the crest of a wave of unprecedented (so-called) prosperity. As a matter of fact, the "prosperity" turned out to be an orgy of speculation that was the greatest in history. But the inevitable has happened and now every country on the face of the earth is all upset and hordes of people are suffering as a part of the payment that must be made for the folly and mistakes of American leadership.

The rising tide of discontent throughout the world makes it perfectly obvious that "times are out of joint." Something is wrong somewhere. In these United States there has been a complete departure from those fundamental and basic principles and the codes of ethics which guided the founders of the nation. Today we find an almost universal state of dissatisfaction with conditions as they are.

Many of these troubles have an economic basis. Possibly all of them are in one way or another related to or affected by the economic condition of the people, but somewhere, somehow, there is an underlying cause which brought about existing conditions both social and economic. A long and careful study leads me to the belief that, like the ancient Hebrews, "My people are destroyed for lack of knowledge." Certainly, in my opinion, one of two things is responsible. It is either "ignorance" or "ignore-ance" of natural laws which has brought the inevitable result of discord and misery.

My own inquiries and investigations lead me to believe that to a very great extent the American system of education is responsible. The American business man pays quite a bit of attention to and takes great interest in building so-called adequate housing facilities. It is usually with a feeling of pride that we point to the new grammar school, the junior high or the new high school, but nevertheless it is woefully true that few if any of us know what is being taught within the walls of these magnificent buildings, or the whys and wherefores behind the teachings to which the children are subjected.

As business men and taxpayers, we content ourselves by providing fine houses, busses for transportating the children to and from the rural schools,

and passing "Compulsory Education Laws," but we leave the real PROBLEM in education entirely alone.

Not long ago a group of Negroes in Baltimore were complaining bitterly because, as they put it, they were compelled to send their children to school no matter how great the sacrifice might be, but that the education received by their children led to positions not open to Negroes. They said, in effect, that the business and civic leaders of the white population had entire control of the matter and that, as a result of this arrangement, the Negro children, who were raw material turned over to the school authorities "to be educated," came out of the schools "a finished product" equipped for service as book-keepers, clerks and stenographers, which positions they were not allowed to fill.

In my opinion, these Negroes were justified and well within their rights in their demand that their children be given jobs in these subjects.

Surely, the parents and the taxpayers may expect the schools at least to develop a ground work of "Logic," "Ethics," and "Ideals" on which the children may build for the future. As a very learned minister recently put it—"Our people are becoming sadly in need of 'Reason,' 'Responsibility' and 'Reverence.'" I, for one, believe that the fault lies upon the doorsteps of our educational institutions.

Existing conditions give great emphasis to the fact that it is of vital importance to have a *scientific and continuous study of public education made —and, made too, in a properly equipped laboratory.* Some way must be found to meet problems like those of the Baltimore Negroes. It becomes a sacred duty, first of all, to find out WHAT are the NEEDS in Public Education?" Second, "HOW the teaching shall be carried on?" and, then, the colossal problem of providing and equipping the necessary human element, the TEACHERS. It seems to me that if this country and this government are to carry on, this matter becomes THE MOST IMPORTANT.

GEORGE R. JAMES
Trustee of George Peabody College for Teachers.

THE NEW BOOKS ON OUR SHELF

[The reviews, most of them signed, are by appropriate members of the Faculty of GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS. Our limited space necessitates concise notices—brief, pointed, thoughtful comments, without elaboration.]

The Principles of Agronomy. By FRANKLIN S. HARRIS AND GEORGE STEWART. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930.

This is a very thorough revision of the edition of 1915. The book is mostly rewritten, new data added, somewhat enlarged, and is now an up-to-date text on crops and soils. Many new figures are included in the new edition. K. C. D.

The Social Studies Laboratory. By J. W. BALDWIN. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1929. Pp. vi + 98.

This is a study of the equipment and teaching aids used in social studies laboratories for grades 4 to 12. The author notes the rise of social studies laboratories, discovers the extent to which they are used, and the amounts and types of equipment used in them. He indicates the relation of these laboratories to regular formal class work, and states the length and number of periods per week that the laboratories are used.

The author makes valuable recommendations in his conclusions relative to the size of the laboratory rooms, the number of such rooms per school, and the types of activities that may or should be carried on in them. E. C. H.

Motor Achievements of Children of Five, Six and Seven Years of Age. By LULU MARIE JENKINS. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. xi + 54.

This is a semi-experimental study of sex differences in certain motor skills shown by children of ages 5, 6, and 7 years. The sex comparisons were made on the basis of certain performances in the nature of tests rather than of continuous learning, and factors of heredity versus previous environmental effects are not well differentiated or controlled. The boys were superior in the 35-yard dash, baseball throw for accuracy and distance, soccer kick for distance, broad jump, etc.; the girls, in the 50-foot hop. Certain improved studies designated to extend the norms up and down in years for each sex are recommended. J. P.

The Christian Teacher. By SISTER MARY ESTHER, O. S. F. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1928. Pp. 113.

Attempts to show that to be "a person, a personality, an influence," is more important for the teacher than the perfection of techniques. Attempts further to show how a teacher may be a person, a personality, and an influence. The process or method described for such attainment is one of self discipline. Sentimental rather than profound. L. W. C.

Educational Dramatics. By DONALD MACLEAN TOWER. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1930. Pp. xxvii + 240.

This book is perhaps misnamed. It is really an excellent collection of dramatic facts, ranging from American drama to the presentation of high school plays. B. R.

Types of World Literature. Edited by PERCY HAZEN HOUSTON AND ROBERT METCALF SMITH. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1930. Pp. xviii + 1200.

This book is a small but choice library of continental and English writings. The translations are splendid; the selections are excellent, and what is more rare in a large anthology, the print is clear. B. R.

A Magic World. By MARGERY GORDON AND MARIE B. KING. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930. Pp. xix + 390.

This is one of the best of the recent anthologies of poetry for school use by the author's or *Poetry of Our Day.* B. R.

Creative Drama in the Lower School. By CORINNE BROWN. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1929. Pp. xiv + 226.

A thoughtful and stimulating discussion of creative drama for children is given in this study. Recommended. B. R.

The Junior High School. Edited by WILLIAM MARTIN PROCTOR AND NICHOLAS RICCIARDI. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1930. Pp. x + 324.

This volume reports specifically on administrative features of the junior high school as it is organized in California. Each section is written by a specialist connected with the California schools. C. W. K.

A Point Scale of Performance Tests. Volume I. By GRACE ARTHUR. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1930. Pp. ix + 82.

This book is the outcome of years of test-scale construction and standardization by a well trained and experienced clinical psychologist. This volume is a practical manual for a non-verbal intelligence scale, and is to be followed by a second volume giving a full account of the standardization and also of alternate forms of scoring and of their results. Norms in this manual are given both for the first test by the scale (based on 1100 cases) and for a retest (based on 535 cases). J. P.

A Second-Year Latin Reader. By FREDERECK WARREN SANFORD AND HARRY FLETCHER SCOTT. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1929. Pp. 548 + 123.

A revision of *A Junior Latin Reader.* The readings are graded, and formal work is segregated in groups of lessons. N. F.

Political Science and Government. By JAMES W. GARDNER. Cincinnati: American Book Company, 1928. Pp. x + 821.

It is a text written in non technical language for freshman or sophomore college students. The subject matter is divided into two parts. Part one deals with problems relating to political theories. Part two is concerned with the machinery and governments. It has a pleasing style and well organized. Heading each chapter in an usable bibliography. W. H. R.

The Community Room in the Platoon School. By ELIZABETH M. HUFF. Boston: Richard G. Badger, Publisher, 1930. Pp. xi + 223.

This book describes the community room as it has been developed in the Pittsburg schools. The plan of the community room further pigeonholes the activities of the child. In one room he is to receive his formal education, in another, the community room, he is to have opportunities to engage in enterprises involving physical activities. Outlines of work for the community room for each month suggests that this division is somewhat artificial. H. L. C.

Your Language. By E. C. CLINE. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930. Pp. xiv + 256.

An interesting presentation of basic general language principles; free from hampering technicalities, and yet accurate in terminology. A practical book for junior high schools that desire to arouse interest in a general content course for English and the foreign languages similar to general content courses in science and mathematics. L. H.

A *Technique for Developing Content for a Professional Course in Science for Teachers in Elementary Schools.* By FLORENCE GRACE BILLIG. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. ix + 101.

A study, in five chapters, of the problem of selecting topics in science for the needs of teachers in the elementary grades, and presenting this content material, with appropriate methods, in a professional course on the college level.

The conception of "core material" and "marginal content" serves most helpfully to classify the science topics. H. A. W.

Some Effects Produced in an Individual by Knowledge of His Own Intellectual Level. By CLINTON M. ALLEN. New York: Bureau of Publications. Teachers College, 1930. Pp. 98.

This is an investigation by means of observations of teachers, questionnaires, and experiment to ascertain "the effects produced on an individual by his obtaining more exact knowledge of his own intellectual status." Neither the reports of observation or of opinion, nor the results of experiment—comparing the work of students who were kept in ignorance as to their intelligence scores with that of those who were informed —showed any significant results. Other methods *may* still find certain visceral and other effects, since the present experiments had certain acknowledged limitations. The author concluded that those who withhold students' scores on the opinion that information as to their intelligence scores produces certain ill effects "will be put more and more on the defensive." Certain details in this monograph should interest all teachers. J. P.

Which College? Revised Edition. By RITA S. HALE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. xxii + 305.

A guide book for the use of parents and high school graduates in selecting the particular college to attend. The aim is to give enough information about individual colleges to enable parents to make a preliminary choice of a few of them for further information. No teachers College or professional schools are included. Information is given for about 400 colleges recognized by some accrediting agency. Frequent revision will be necessary if the book is to be of more than temporary use. J. R. R.

Thoughts in English Prose. By J. C. DENT. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1930. Pp. x + 149.

This is one of the few texts edited with the idea of emphasizing the thought wealth of the language. From the teaching suggestions one can obtain a good idea of how the British teacher works, how he combines literature and composition, and how he offers the philosophies of life with both.

Character Education by State and Church. By HOWARD S. TUTTLE. New York: The Abingdon Press, 1930. Pp. 164.

Within the last month ten or a dozen books have been received dealing with some aspect of Character Education. The purpose of this particular volume is "to sketch in brief and simple outline the ways in which the state may without violating the American principle of separation of church and state cooperation in the cultivation of the religious life of the child and the ways in which the church may stimulate and utilize such assistance." The book assumes that religion is recognized by many "as the fundamental and only adequate motive for right living." The book is also based on the conviction "that ethical conduct cannot be assured apart from religion." This volume includes in concise form much of previous material on this subject. Furthermore much additional new material is added making the volume exceedingly valuable for those interested in the status of a movement in which all educators are concerned and a problem, the solution of which is of vital import both to superintendents, principles, and teachers whether of church or state. Suggestions offered are for the most part sane, practical and feasible. L. W. C.

The University Work of the United Lutheran Church in America. By HOWARD MARION LESOURD. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1929. Pp. viii + 136.

The purpose of this study, Contributions to Education, No. 377, Teachers College, Columbia, is fivefold: "1. To ascertain as nearly as possible the extent and character of Lutheran work for students at non-Lutheran institutions; 2. To discover the various types of Lutheran student work, the general program and its emphasis, the financial situation, and the equipment and personnel requirements maintained; 3. To study the Lutheran students who are in attendance at certain non-Lutheran universities; 4. To discover certain needs in this field which might be met in such a constructive way as to increase greatly the effectiveness of the student work; 5. To enable the Lutheran Church to see its religious education program as a whole, so that it might make its plans in the light of all needs and opportunities." The methodology includes questionnaires, personal visits, study of official documents and publications. Certain centers were selected because "they seemed to be typical and within easy reach of New York City" including Philadelphia, Ithaca, Indianna, Pa., State College, Pa., Chapel Hill, N. C. The findings appear to be more or less obvious with minimum attention given either to a critical or a philosophical analysis of the limited data in hand. L. W. C.

Enriched Teaching of Latin in the High School. By MAXIE N. WOODRING AND FRANCES E. SABIN. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. viii + 144.

This is a very convenient summary of various bulletins of the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers, giving definite information about moderately priced illustrative and supplementary material. It is hardly anything more. C. E. L.

Plane and Solid Geometry. By GORDON R. MIRICK, MARQUIS J. NEWELL AND GEORGE A. HARPER. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1929. Pp. xv + 462.

This is a well organized and well written text which attempts "to meet the ever-changing needs of the student." The authors have considered the report of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements in the selection and arrangement of subject matter. F. L. W.

The Idea of God in Protestant Religious Education. By ANGUS HECTOR MCLEAN. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. vi + 150.

This study which constitutes Contributions to Education, N. 410, Teachers College, Columbia University, confines itself to the Idea of God in Protestant Religious Education as found in the elementary grades. Practically all available current religious educational curricula are included in the subject matter data. In addition five hundred and seventy-five children were tested with unusually exhaustive questionnaires with scores tabulated in terms of Conservative-Liberal, Objectionable, Ethical, and Scientific scores. "A revision of Biblical teaching that would include more of the known facts about the Bible" is, in the opinion of the author, one of the outstanding needs of Religious Education. There is also, the author points out, a need for a similar advance in the teaching of the known facts of nature. The one need of which the writer is most conscious is "for some reliable experimentation to determine how much theology and what portions of theology can be given to primary children with promise of better results than have been discovered." The book is a careful scientific treatment wholly from the liberal point of view. L. W. C.

Master Vergil, compiled and edited by ELIZABETH NITCHIE. Boston and New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1930.

This is an anthology of poems in English, reminiscent of Vergil. The selections are represented by Tennyson's noble tribute to Vergil in 1881 and by nearly all the English poets from John Gower and Chaucer in the fourteenth century through Gavin Douglas in the fifteenth century, Ben Johnson, Alexander Pope, and on down to Virginia McCormick in 1928. It is a rich array of very useful and handy references. C. E. L.

Homeric Greece. By MARJORIE AND H. H. B. QUENNELL. New York: Putnam's Sons, 1930.

These authors and artists have produced a series of books on everyday life in the past: in the far past, in Roman Britain, in later England, and in everyday life in Homeric Greece.

This book is carefully illustrated. The text is simple enough for "boys and girls of public school age." This is a new departure in the series, being now definitely intended for what would correspond in our schools to junior and senior high-school and perhaps later.

For an understanding of the continuous development of culture in all its aspects of literature and commerce, and the many arts and comforts of life, the book is admirably adapted for school use. C. E. L.

Living Latin. Book Two. By CLAIRE C. THURSBY AND GRETCHEN D. KYNE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. xxi + 623.

A second book in Latin on the junior high school level. Major emphasis is placed on the reading of easy selections. From this reading the more formal aspects of Latin are developed. The Latin selections are interesting. One might wish that they were more related to each other or to some central theme of thought so that the interest in each lesson might not need to be created anew. N. F.

New Elementary Latin. By B. L. ULLMAN AND NORMAN E. HENRY. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. xxvi + 448 + 42.

This is fundamentally a revision of *Elementary Latin* by the same authors. Formal grammar receives a little less attention than in the earlier books, and supplementary work is somewhat expanded. Those who have used the earlier book will find this one even more satisfactory. N. F.

Latin—Second Year. By LILLIAN G. BERRY AND JOSEPHINE L. LEE. New York: Silver, Burdette and Company, 1929. Pp. xviii + 434 + 83.

This is the second book, following Magoffin and Henry, *Latin—First Year.* The book contains well graded selections from mythological stories and follows these with glimpses of Roman history. The bulk of the book, pp. 187-385, contains copious selections from Caesar which seems to be thought of by the authors as the real nucleus of the second year.

The book is finely illustrated; the selections seem well chosen; the notes and directions seem timely; and the lessons well graded.

This book seems altogether more acceptable than the first book of the series, and can be recommended accordingly. N. F.

Second Latin Book, Revised Edition. By B. L. Ullman and Norman E. Henry, New York: Macmillan Company, 1929.

This book is a revision of the Second Latin Book, published in 1925. The number of lessons in Part II had been increased from ten to fifteen, full explanations of subjunctive constructions are given, and in the reading matter for Part IV the Argonauts has been added and some additional chapters of Caesar in Part V. The book is also finely illustrated and printed in larger type than the earlier edition. The book is more crowded than the former one and probably less satisfactory, unless teachers will learn how to discriminate and make proper choice of selections. N. F.

Second Year Latin. By Fred S. Dunham. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company, 1929.

This book is based on a special plan of considering Latin primarily in relation to English and based on Caesar. To that end Part I has about fifty pages of stories of Hercules and then the rest of the book is Caesar. The treatment of Caesar is pretty largely from the old military and grammatical point of view. N. F.

Astronomy: An Introduction. By Robert H. Baker. New York: D. Van Nostrand & Company, 1930. Pp. xx 521.

The newest college textbook in the field, well organized, and distinctly up-to-date —e. g., brief mention of the trans-Neptunian planet. Treatment is mildly mathematical. The discussion of nebulae, particularly "island universes," is comprehensive and well illustrated. H. A. W.

A Child's Garden of Religious Stories. By P. Henry Matimore. New York: Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. x + 280.

Stories of the Bible and of the Catholic saints arranged for school use. The stories are unusually well told. N. F.

Knights Old and New. By Alice M. Hoben. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1929. Pp. vii + 197.

Stories of the knights of King Arthur's Round Table told for children. Each story is followed by suggestions for dramatization. The stories are well told, and the suggestions for dramatization are helpful. N. F.

State Banks and the Federal Reserve System. By Charles S. Tippetts. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1929. Pp. viii + 393.

The author gives a clear, concise and well balanced discussion of his subject. He begins with a statement of the attitude of National and state bankers toward the adoption of the Federal Reserve Banking System. The new banking system once in operation, the author next discusses the relationship of the state banks to the new system. The reasons are given as to why the state banks did enter the new system. Next the changes made in the laws of the Federal Reserve System in order to encourage the state banks to become members are discussed. The advantages and disadvantages of National and state banks are clearly set forth. The par collection controversy is discussed completely. Branch banking is next taken up followed by a chapter which very ably summarizes the problems raised and discussed in preceding chapters. The book is an able and timely discussion of the important issues raised in our present banking systems. A valuable book to bankers and advanced students in banking. O. C. A.

School Provisions for Individual Differences. By Knute O. Broady. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. 101.

This study presents the best opinion and practice relative to the adaptation of the schools to individual differences and needs of pupils. This opinion and practice is presented in the form of administrative policies. Administrators who wish to check the adequacy of policies operative in their own schools will find this study helpful. H. L. C.

New Narratives, Edited by Blanche C. Williams. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930. Pp. xii + 366.

Stories selected to meet junior high school English requirements, very frankly attempting to follow recommendations of the Fifth Year Book of the Department of Superintendance of the National Education Association. The stories are all from current literature, and likely to be interesting to Junior High School pupils. N. F.

How to Write a Thesis. By WARD V. REEDER. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1930.

This revision is even better than the original book so well known to graduate students and to teachers. N. F.

Child Care and Training. By MARION L. FAZRE AND JOHN ANDERSON. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1929, Pp. vi + 274.

This revision of this well known text is particularly timely. The book is of special interest to parents and those dealing with young children. S. C. G.

The Oregon Trail. By FRANCIS PARKMAN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. xvi + 370.

A school edition of a well known book. The notes are helpful and are placed at the back of the book so as not to intrude themselves upon those who are interested in the text. A very good book at a surprisingly low price. N. F.

Marwood Readers. By SISTER MARY ESTELLE. New York: Macmillan Company, 1930.

Tom and Ruth, a pre-primer; *Tom and Ruth Stories,* a primer; *Friends of Ours,* the third book in the series. Tom and Ruth become the real friends of children. At least one youngster is disappointed that Tom and Ruth do not occupy a larger place in the third book of the series. The word selection is good, and the mechanical make-up and illustrations are excellent. N. F.

The Kelpies Run Away. By ETTA AUSTIN BLAISDELL. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1930. Pp. 156.

A supplemental reader for a strong first grade or a normal second grade. The story is imaginative and delightfully illustrated in color. N. F.

The Wonder Road, Fairy Tales selected by EDWIN DILLER STARBUCK AND FRANK K. SHUTTLEWORTH. New York: Macmillan Company, 1930.

This is a series of three volumes of fairy stories. The first volume bears the subtitle, *Familiar Haunts,* and is made up of well known stories. Book II bears the subtitle *Enchanted Paths,* and contains stories more modern and less widely used. Book III bears the subtitle, *Far Horizons,* and contains stories very much like those in Book II.

This series of volumes is the result of the work done in the Institute of Character Research of the State University of Iowa. The basis on which the stories are selected is not given. The series is particularly valuable for those telling stories to children. N. F.

Africa From Port to Port. By MAY MOTT-SMITH. New York: D. Van Nostrand, 1930. Pp. xiv + 424.

This is the story simply but interestingly told in a breezy style of a circle town of Africa by ship. The author, an American woman, presents clearly and honestly her impressions of the people of Africa at the ports and in the near-by portions of the hunter-land readily reached from the ports. The work is well illustrated with half tones of photographs taken by the author and with the author's own drawings. It is a book not only for the general reader interested in travel but the geographer may get much that is valuable. A. E. P.

Children at the Crossroads. By AGNES E. BENEDICT. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1930. Pp. 238.

This book presents stories of special cases considered by visiting teachers. The cases are clearly presented, and the book is interesting to read. It stimulates thought rather than solves problems, although the entire book serves as an argument for better country schools and for community service in the rural districts. N. F.

The Bright Pupil. By FAY ADAMS AND WALKER BROWN. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1930. Pp. xiv + 249.

The book is very evidently developed from the experiences of teachers who have been attempting to meet the needs of bright pupils in their schools. This material comes largely from the secondary schools, though the specific things suggested would have great value for upper grade teachers.

In addition to the specific material, which is interesting, there is a real attempt to formulate principles for guidance in such work. The combination of specific suggestions and statement of principles makes the book very valuable for those attempting to adjust their school work to the needs of bright children. N. F.

We Three, A Primer. By ALBERTA WALKER AND ETHEL SUMMY. New York: Charles Merrill Company, 1929.

This is a supplemental primer. The material is interesting for children, and the illustrations in color lend charm to the book. N. F.

Every Day Stories. By JEAN Y. AYER, FRANKLIN T. BAKER, AND ASHLEY THORNDYKE. New York: Macmillan Company, 1929.

This is an additional second reader to follow the Second Reader of the Every Day Classic Series. The stories are interesting and unusual. The illustrations are good. A particular feature of the book is the supplementary exercises given at the close, including multiple choice, true-false, and completion exercises, together with some more formal word drills. N. F.

The Elementary School Library. By WILLIAM A. KING. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929. Pp. xiii + 224.

An intelligent contribution on a subject much needing treatment at this time. Elementary school libraries are developing so rapidly that the present book will soon be "dated." The author's treatment of training for school librarianship is inadequate, but here in particular Mr. King was faced with a subject in the throes of a development so extensive that full comment is not yet possible. The author is not a trained librarian. J. E. T.

Animal Autobiographies. By EDWARD H. WILLIAMS. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkin Company, 1930. Pp. 124.

This is a series of nature stories to read or to tell children. The stories are interesting. A few illustrations would add materially to the value of the book for home use or for school use with small children. N. F.

The Teaching of Latin by MASON D. GRAY. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1929. Pp. xviii + 235.

This book consists of a preface by Mrs. Gray, who with the help of Professor W. L. Carr, saw the book through the press after the death of her husband. There follows a very brief introduction by the general editor, Paul Klapper, for the Appleton series of "Special Methods."

The treatment by the late Dr. Gray consists of eleven chapters with full discussions of the following topics: The Status of Latin in Secondary Schools; The Place and Purpose of Latin; The Objectives of Latin; The Motivation of Latin; The Immediate Objectives: Comprehension and Translation; The Immediate Objectives: Vocabulary; The Immediate Objectives: Inflections; The Immediate Objectives: Syntax; The Ultimate or Educational Objectives: Instrumental and Application; The Ultimate or Educational Objectives: Disciplinary or General Training; The Ultimate or Educational Objectives: Historical-Cultural. In an Appendix, Pp. 173-230, we have a miscellany of bibliography, teaching equipment, summaries of various sorts, suggestions for teaching, and applications to word study, grammar and modern language, ending with Grimm's law. The book closes with an index of two pages.

Dr. Gray was one of the Committee of Three who gathered the data on which Part I of the General Report of the Classical Investigation, 1924, was based. Dr. Gray's book is more or less of an enlargement of the findings of that general report, being increased by additions from his own special and previously published articles on Latin-English and English Latin word study. The book is also somewhat controversial in its discussions, showing quite adequately the pedagogical issues around Latin as a storm center. These controversies attempt to justify the general as well as the specific value of Latin study and its place in the curriculum, being of considerable importance as a contribution to educational development.

The earlier book by Bristol and Bennett, "Teaching of Latin and Greek in Secondary Schools," published in 1901 and reprinted with slight changes in 1911; and the later book by Game, "Teaching High School Latin" first edition 1916 and reprinted with revisions in 1925, are still very useful books and also reflect their era. As a matter of fact, all three of these books ought to be studied to get the proper perspective on the questions relating to Latin in the high school during the past forty years. C. E. L.

Society and the Child. By EDWARD N. CLOPPER. Boston: Richard G. Badger, Publishers, 1929. Pp. 208.

Spelling for Everyday Use. Book One, 160 pages; Book Two, 216 pages. By J. M. STEADMAN, JR., Ph.D., Emory University; K. C. GARRISON, Ph.D., North Carolina State College; HAROLD H. BIXLER, Ph.D., Atlanta Public Schools. Atlanta: Smith, Hammond and Company.

A practical and effective contribution in the spelling field. The major effort is to present to pupils the words they are likely to use and in the most learnable arrangement. These objectives seem to be well achieved.

The "Hospital" device is a clever one whose very novelty should make the mastery of "demons" an easier and more intriguing victory. A. L. C.

An Accounting of Progress and Attendance of Rural School Children in Delaware. By HERMAN COOPER. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. ix + 150.

Mr. Cooper has shown, according to data from Delaware, that attendance has a decided effect on progress in the one-room rural school. He has shown further that education of parents is necessary to improve this conditions, as well as the passage of compulsory attendance laws. R. R. HILL

Educational Problems for Psychological Study. By GOODWIN WATSON AND RALPH B. SPENCE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. xii + 352.

This syllabus is a revision of the Authors' "Sketches In the Out of School," 1927, and aimes to correct the "numerous defects" of that volume while adhering to the same basic idea. Though intended as a guide for educational psychology it covers a variety of problems in education. The revisions include additional instructions, new cases, more definite questions, etc. The reviewer doubts the value of such a medley of problems and superficial methods. J. P.

Alternating Currents for Technical Students. By CALVIN C. BISHOP. New York: D. Van Nostrand, 1930. Pp. viii + 317.

The most important phenomena of alternating current power circuits are clearly explained and illustrated. Although many qualitative problems are use for illustrations, no mathematics beyond the simplest forms of trigonometry are employed. C. R. F.

A Case Book in Discussion. By FRANK C. MCKINNEY AND MARY EULA MCKINNEY. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1930. Pp. vii + 267.

One must agree with a foreword calling this book "entirely novel" for English composition teaching. Saw cases that way appeal to high school and college pupils are brought together "to make free discussion inevitable and the class have a training period in reasoning, and thinking." The book should stimulate oral composition, but might prove somewhat dangerous in the lands of inexperienced teachers. E. E. F.

The Adolescent. By SIDNEY I. SCHWAB AND BORDEN S. VEEDER. New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1929. Pp. v + 365.

This is a sane and useful discussion by two physicians of the problems that usually arise in adolescents, and of how the more serious conflicts may be avoided. The treatment is simple and direct and yet broad and comprehensive. It is free from blind devotion to any theory and is based largely on experience and an acquaintance with current psychology, biology, and medicine. J. P.

Commencement. By GERTRUDE JONES. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1929. Pp. xi + 116.

Offers helpful suggestions, plans, organizations, aids, program material, procedure, and bibliography for Commencement occasions, with the end in view of "getting school Commencements out of a rut," making them different, interesting, practical, and broader in scope. L. W. C.

Enriched Teaching of Commercial Subjects in the High School. By MAXIE NAVE WOODRING AND GILBERT HAROLD. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. viii + 339.

I can do no better than to quote the foreword of the book: "A source book for teachers of bookkeeping, shorthand, typewriting, commercial geography, and other commercial subjects, listing chiefly free and low cost illustrative and supplementary materials." And an excellent source book it is. E. M.

Modern Plane Geometry. By JOHN C. STONE AND VIRGIL S. MALLORY. New York: Benj. H. Sanborn & Company, 1929. Pp. xiv + 474.

An excellent text organized on the unit plan. Many interesting and helpful illustrations. Well placed tests and indicated applications. F. L. W.

Prediction of Success in Professional Courses for Teachers. By LAURA B. M. KRIEGER. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. 77.

A general review of correlations between test scores and college success is given as well as of similar results in Teachers College since the General Examinations were introduced in 1927. It is found that the average correlation between test and college success up to 1918 in all graduates is .40; and since then, "between .43 and .48." On the 840 graduate students here studied, Miss Krieger obtained a correlation of .46 between average General Examination scores and grades in first semester. This gives a predictive index of only .11. This predictive value of success of 11% better than a guess is not appreciably increased even when the scores of the four parts of General Examination are combined by means of a multiple regression equation. The chief difficulty seems to be the inaccuracy in giving grades. J. P.

Second Course in Algebra. By FRED EUGELHARDT AND LEONARD D. HAERTTER. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1929. Pp. viii + 423.

A text in Algebra written along conservative lines. F. L. W.

Ninth-Year Mathematics rev. ed. By ERNEST R. BRESLICK. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. ix + 319.

A good text with many illustrations, exercises, reviews, and detailed instructions. The copy in the hand of the reviewer is very poorly bound. F. L. W.

Solid Geometry. By WILLIAM W. STRADER AND LAWRENCE D. RHOADS. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1929. Pp. viii + 184.

A well written text. The authors state that "the recommendations of the National Committee, of the College Entrance Examination Board, and of various states have been fully met in content and in spirit." The basal proportions of the National Committee and of the College Board are appropriately lettered N and C respectively. These statements seem to be rather carefully executed. The authors attempt to make a direct appeal to the interest of the pupils. Through carefully placed exercises they have cared for individual differences. In all it seems to be a very good text. F. L. W.

Modern Algebra. By RALEIGH SCHARLING, JOHN R. CLARK AND SELMA A. LINDELL. Yonkers. World Book Company, 1929. Pp. First Course, viii + 391; Second Course, xvi + 464.

The book has two reasons for existence according to the statement of the authors. The first reason is that it has been written to meet "the crucial need . . . for a second course in algebra that will work smoothly with pupils who have had modern courses in Grades 7, 8, and 9." The second reason is that the book "employs modern psychology." It seems to be a well arranged text with a large number of tests and practice exercises which are distributed throughout the context. The book contains an introduction to trigonometry and also an introduction to statistics. F. L. W.

The Child's Heredity. By PAUL POPENOE. Baltimore: The Williams and Wilkins Company, 1929. Pp. xiii + 316.

An illuminating book written in a popular style from a broad point of view especially for the use of parents. The author is a widely known writer on eugenics. The book is free enough from errors on technical matters to be helpful to teachers. J. P.

The Library in the School. By LUCILE F. FARGO. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. 453.

The appearance of this volume at a time when school librarianship is developing so rapidly is most opportune. School librarians everywhere feel that they owe a debt of gratitude to Miss Fargo. Practical problems, such as housing and equipment, technical and mechanical processes of getting books ready for circulation, problems of book selection and of library instruction—all have been given careful treatment in accordance with the editorial policy of the Library Curriculum Studies of the American Library Association. When there are two sides to a question of policy, both are stated. The volume should prove a helpful handbook for principals and school administrators. Miss Fargo joins the faculty of George Peabody College for Teachers in September, 1930, as Associate Director of the Library School. J. E. T.

The Witness Tree. By HAROLD CHANNING WIRE. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1930. Pp. xii + 236.

The story of a boy, a dog and a forest ranger. Especially suitable for boys of junior high school age. N. F.

Girls of Long Ago. By IDA DONNALLY PETERS. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1930 Pp. viii + 324.

A series of nineteen stories of girls who became prominent women. The stories are well told and the historical details are carefully treated. This book is particularly valuable as collateral historical reading material of about sixth grade difficulty. N. F.

Planning School Building Programs. By N. L. ENGELHARDT AND FRED ENGELHARDT, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1930. Pp. xv + 574.

The best and most usable book dealing with school housing programs. The authors describe in considerable detail the various steps necessary for planning and carrying out a building program. The bibliographies at the end of each chapter are well selected.

The book should be of much practical value to all who have to do with school buildings. W. D. C.

Radio and Electric Power Supply Equipment for Schools. By EDWARD CHARLES BLOOM. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1930. Pp. vi + 188.

Two separate and distinct subjects are treated in this book. Also the method of procedure in each case differed. Much valuable information is presented. The study is probably of most value in stimulating further studies in these fields. W. D. C.

Economy in Public School Fire Insurance. By HARVEY A. SMITH. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1930. Pp. vi + 111.

One of the most thorough studies thus far made on this subject. The author probably attempted a study of too large a scope, hence giving the reader a feeling that certain phases are incomplete. His case studies were confined undoubtedly to too limited an area. The bibliography is very meagre. The study is of considerable value to the student of school finance and business management. W. D. C.

Rural Intelligence in relation to Rural Population. By CHARLES D. LEWIS. Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers Contribution to Education, No. 74.

A basic study to determine whether the level of rural intelligence is becoming higher or lower. The methods used are not perfect but seem to indicate that there is a slight tendency for rural populations to maintain themselves from the lower level of intelligence.

This study is of significance to all those interested in rural education. N. F.

The Country Teacher at Work. By FRANK J. LOWTH. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. xii + 542.

Another general handbook for country teachers, including some material on extra-curricular activities, equipment, and special methods for the subjects. The book should prove helpful to the country school teacher. N. F.

The Single Salary Schedule. By LYLE L. MORRIS. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, 1930. Pp. 79.

An attempt to study and evaluate the value of the single salary schedule weighing the arguments for and against this plan of payment for teachers. A careful study of the system in practice in a number of school systems was made. The author concludes that changes are necessary in the plan as now usually operated. The study should be valuable to students interested in finance and personal problems. W. D. C.

The Fundamentals of Public School Administration. By WARD G. REEDER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. xii + 579.

Primarily an elementary textbook on School Administration problems. The treatment devoted to some phases is so brief that it may confuse rather than clarify. The selected bibliography on the whole seems to be well chosen. The book will be used undoubtedly in many school administration classes. W. D. C.

Public School Plant Program. By ARTHUR B. MOEHLMAN. Chicago: Rand-McNally & Company, 1930. Pp. xv + 405.

This is a discussion of the principles underlying the organization and administration of school plant programs for public schools, with a technique for appraising the present plant and determining the needs of the ultimate plant. Designed to serve as the general introduction for two other volumes, the first on the elementary, the second on the secondary school plant. R. L. H.

Progress Tests in American History. By F. LESLIE CLARKE. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1930. Pp. 275.

This is a teacher's handbook which gives the answers to the questions in *Pupils Workbook* by the same author. The same questions are repeated here. There seems to be little need for such a handbook in the hands of a well trained teacher. F. P. W.

Workbook to Accompany Haynes and Moon's Ancient and Medieval History. By I. O. FOSTER AND EDGAR BRUCE WESLEY. New York: Macmillan, 1930. Pp. 143.

Carefully worked out suggestions for study. Most of the Outline Exercises are in the form of completion tests. Has definite reading assignments based on the text. Also outline maps and a progress chart. This workbook should be of great help to teachers using the text on which it is based. F. P. W.

Famous Events in American History. By INEZ N. MCFEE. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1930. Pp. 296.

These famous events begin with the discovery of America and end with Byrd's flights to the Poles. Twenty famous and important events are related. The author does not attempt a complete history, but tells rather fully about some of these outstanding events. The print is good and the illustrations are well chosen. F. P. W.

Foreign Language Equipment of 2,325 Doctors of Philosophy. By GEORGE H. BETTS AND RAYMOND A. KENT. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1929. Pp. 151.

This volume is of interest to those concerned with requirements for the Ph.D. Degree. The work is based on 2,325 questionnaires and 1,000 or more pages of comment by persons holding Ph.D. Degrees. The three chief reasons set forth for the language requirement are: (1) Foreign languages are for some fields a necessary tool for research. (2) Foreign languages are traditionally a badge of culture. (3) Foreign languages act as a deterrent for those of least ability. Many express the view that under our present system of administration the values claimed for the foreign languages are not secured. Also that there are fields for research in which modern languages are not necessary tools. Many opinions are quoted. Arguments on both sides are given, none of which seem to be conclusive. The question, *shall the language requirement be discontinued?* remains unanswered. F. P. W.

Jerry and Grandpa. By HILDA M. WICKSTEED. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1930, Pp. 145.

An appealing dog story with a sad ending. N. F.

Studies in Service and Self-Control. By HUGH HARTSHONE AND MARK A. MAY. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. xxiii + 559.

This book is Volume II of Studies in the Nature of Character by the Character Education Inquiry, Teachers College, Columbia University. This volume deals with service and self-control referred to tentatively as co-operation, charity, persistence and inhibitition, tendencies which the authors point out are closely related and inter-woven.

Of the large number of techniques fourteen are used involving some twenty-six tests, the fundamental purpose of the study being to explore the field of character measurement and to demonstrate the feasibility and value of quantitative proceedings in this type of research. The study finds that with children in grades 5 to 8 service tendencies are specific rather than general, and are made more in response to the external demands of the situation than to the inner views of the principle or ideals involved. The study also finds that self-control is specific and is functionally related to the situations to which the responses are made. The study is especially valuable from the standpoint of the techniques used together with the administration and interpretations thereof. L. W. C.

Some Relationships Existing in School Expenditures Among Florida Counties. By CHARLES A. SMITH. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1929. Pp. viii + 54.

A study of the effect on school expenditures of such items as length of term, number of teachers in a school, the size of classes, wealth of the community and density of population; these and other factors being ranked according to their importance. R. L. H.

The Work-Play Books. By ARTHUR I. GATES AND MIRIAM B. HUBER. New York: Macmillan Company, 1930.

The books so far prepared include the Primer, the First, Second, and Third Readers. This series is particularly noteworthy for its careful selection of words and for the ease with which the stories lend themselves to the activity type of work with children. Withall, the stories are interesting and well graded. The illustrations are in colors, and the make-up of the books is excellent. This series should gain a high place among recent books available for elementary school reading. N. F.

Music in Junior High Schools. By BEATTIE, MCCONATHY, AND MORGAN. Newark: Silver, Burdett, and Company.

The first 123 pages could have been omitted. The latter 117 pages will be of great assistance to superintendents, supervisors, etc., in organizing music courses in junior high schools. D. R. G.

People and Music. By THOMASING T. MCGHEE. New York: Allyn and Bacon.

The attempt to incorporate music in life is commendatory. However, there is a question as to whether the form of presentation is practical and agreeable for the boy and girl of junior high school age. Is it so technical that it is disagreeable? The regular text seems to attract the children; but the time taken for preparation for "special activities," "special reading," etc., submerges the good story of music and the use of real music. D. R. G.

Songs of Purpose. By EARHART AND SNEATH. New York: Macmillan Company.

The idea behind the book is excellent, moral instruction. However, by classifying the songs as "morality" under special headings, the boys at least will be led to turn away from "preaching" songs or will turn their attention to questions of morality in a way that will bring startling results in children with curious minds. The songs are excellent throughout. D. R. G.

Hero Stories for Children. By EARL A. COLLINS AND LYDA HALE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. vii-264.

A series of fifteen stories, from the time of Abraham to the founding of America; about fifth grade reading difficulty. N. F.

The Legal Control of the Administration of Public School Expenditures. By RALPH YAKEL. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1929. Pp. vii + 167.

Proposes a legal code for the control of public school expenditures built from principles found in a compilation of decisions of courts of last resort compared with expert opinion. R. L. H.

Principles of Guidance. By ARTHUR J. JONES. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1930. Pp. xxiv + 385.

The above text is a comprehensive treatise on the problems of guidance. The author has carefully stated the assumptions underlying guidance, and has as carefully avoided overstatements where data are sufficient to warrant only tentative conclusions. A generous list of well-chosen references appears in each division of the book. Principals and superintendents will find this one volume a valuable source of information in a comparatively new field. C. W. K.

Day Schools vs. Institutions for the Deaf. By C. C. UPSHAW. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1929. Pp. 104.

An elaborate statistical comparison of 316 deaf children in "Day Schools" with 1470 deaf children in "Institutions." Extreme care was exercised to insure representative samples of the two types of children. Forty-five tables and twenty-seven figures present the data on such points as intelligence, average school achievement, amount of residual hearing, age of onset of deafness, years in attendance in other schools before entrance into schools for the deaf, etc. The conclusion is reached that "Day Schools" attract a markedly different group of children than do "Institutions." W. A. B.

A History of English Literature. By WILLIAM ALLAN NEILSON AND ASHLEY HORACE THORNDYKE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. xii + 486.

This is a revised edition (1930) of one of the best short histories of English and Literature. Recommended. B. R.

The Growth of a Nation. By EUGENE C. BARKER, WILLIAM E. DODD, AND WALTER P. WEBB. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1928. Pp. xii + 726.

The scholarship of the authors gives us confidence in the historical accuracy of this book. There are many good illustrations and maps, some of which are in color. The organization into seven parts suggests the large unit, idea. There are many subdivisions which contain more than 800 small topics. F. P. W.

Dictionary of American Biography. Volumes III and IV. Edited by ALLEN JOHNSON. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929.

These two volumes, as well as the others of the series, are prepared under the auspices of the American Council of Learned Societies. The careful scholarship of the editor, Professor Allen Johnson, and the wide scholarship of the numerous contributors gives us a valuable source of historical information. There has been a long felt need for such a Dictionary of American Biography. It should be in every high school and college library. F. P. W.

Sidelights on American History. Revised Edition. Volumes I and II. By HENRY WILLIAM ELSON. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928. Pp. xii + 313.

These two volumes supply much interesting material for students of both Junior and Senior High Schools. Instead of the brief treatment of topics as given in the ordinary textbook we find here a fuller discussion of some of the most important episodes of American History. F. P. W.

The American Colonies, 1492-1750. By MARCUS WILSON JERNEGAN. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1929. Pp. xxxiii + 457. Price $1.60.

This is a well organized and scholarly piece of work. The careful researches of Professor Jernegan give us much new material in this volume. The emphasis is on the social and economic development. It is a very desirable textbook for the colonial period and should also find a place in every high school and college library. F. P. W.

Our Financial System. By ALBERT S. KEISTER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. xv + 493.

A simple and clear discussion of the financial institutions of the United States. Excellent for the general reader, or as collateral reading in the course of general economics touching this field. O. C. A.

A Study of the Summer High School. By WILLIS HOWARD REALS. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1928. Pp. vi + 88.

This study is an attempt to evaluate the summer high school as a phase of the movement for a larger school year. It deals with the development of the summer school, the quality of work of summer high school pupils, the ability of pupils who receive promotion at the end of the summer session to sustain themselves in advanced work during the succeeding academic year, pupil personnel, and the demands for summer schools.

Due to the extreme care with which the study was made, the results seem to be reliable and useful. S. B. H.

Problems of the City School Superintendent in the Field of Arithmetic. By CLARENCE ARTHUR RUBADO. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. 107.

An analysis of published investigations in arithmetic revealed a total of 106 problems of curriculum, measurement, methods of teaching, etc., which have been the object of critical discussion and quantitative research. This list of problems was then personally submitted to 54 superintendents to discover the frequency and the importance with which these problems had appeared in the practical business of operating schools. The purpose of the study was therefore to determine what training in the field of arithmetic should be provided superintendents best to fit them for their actual needs. The author provides a list of suggested readings in connection with the various problems. It is at this point that the study is weakest, for the selections are not any too well made. They seem to betray a lack of care in the evaluation of available references. The basic idea represented in the study is, however, highly to be commended as perhaps a first effort toward improving an aspect of professional preparation now very much neglected. W. A. B.

Our Economic Life. By THOMAS NIXON CARVER AND GLADYS MARION ADAMS. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1929. Pp. x + 373.

An interesting and well written book dealing with social and economic problems. Excellent for supplementary reading in the high school. O. C. A.

Finding and Teaching Atypical Children. By GUY L. HILLEBOE. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. vi + 177.

A valuable bibliographical analysis and summary. The author seems to have covered the literature thoroughly, and to have classified and discussed his material in a useful manner. He is hardly to be held responsible for desirable data not now available, nor for inconsistencies in the results of investigations made by others. The book will be helpful both for those who want a general survey of present knowledge and for those who want to undertake a more detailed and systematic study of any of the topics treated here in a cursory fashion. W. A. B.

Instruction and Instructional Facilities in the Colleges of the United Lutheran Church in America. By DONALD PERRY COTTRELL. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1929. Pp. viii + 138.

A detailed survey of instruction and instructional facilities in the United Lutheran Churches of America. Following the survey, the technique of which is not materially different from the usual college survey, the author gives a set of recommendations for each of the colleges. Naturally the recommendations deal with, Instruction, Guidance, Curriculum and Methods. A very commendable study. S. B. H.

Qualities Associated with Leadership in the Extra-Curricular Activities of the High School. By GEORGE C. BELLINGRATH. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. 57.

This is a very interesting study concerning the qualities which are related to elected leadership in the extra-curricular activities of the high school. The study is based upon a very small samplying of students with the correlations in most instances being low or only barely marked or substantial. S. B. H.

Some Factors Influencing Participation in Voluntary School Group Activities. By WAYLAND J. HAYES. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. vi + 82.

This study concerns itself with determining some of the factors influencing pupil participation in voluntary group activities. It concludes that voluntary school group activities are selective in character and that in most cases the most intelligent student seeks the values they offer. The study seems highly limited since it deals with only one high school. S. B. H.

Survey of College Entrance Credits and College Courses in Music. Prepared by the Research Council of the Music Supervisors National Conference. New York: National Bureau for Advancement of Music, 1930. Pp. 209.

This is a questionnaire study of current practice and opinion in 594 colleges and universities. Ample justification is found in the practice of these institutions for the acceptance of credits in music for college entrance and for a baccalaureate degree. The data are published in detailed tables so that any item may be checked by means of college catalogues. The survey will be useful to students of music and to college and high school administrators. J. R. R.

Do You Know English Literature? By BLANCHE COTTON WILLIAMS AND JOHN MACY. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1930. Pp. vii + 597.

A chronological arrangement of interesting questions and accurate, cleverly worded answers concerning facts and criticisms of English literature. Stimulating. L. H.

A Library Primer for High Schools. By HENRY ORMAL SEVERANCE. Columbia, Missouri: Lucas Brothers, 1927. Pp. 89.

The book suggests simple methods of library organization and procedure for a small high school. Although some of the books recommended for purchase are now out of print or have been replaced by later books, and the different kinds of catalog cards presented might well receive further explanation, the suggestions in the book as a whole are clear and have practical value. P. C.

Home Rooms. By EVAN E. EVANS AND MALCOLM SCOTT HALLMAN. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1930. Pp. xi + 154.

A little volume dealing with the "Home Room" as a primary unit in educational organization. The chief contribution of the book is the presentation of a series of Home Room activities, projects and progress. S. B. H.

The Rise of the Public High School in Connecticut. By SILAS HERTZER. Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1930. Pp. xx + 258.

This study is distinctly historical. The writer has made a careful collection of material from many sources which throw light on the development of secondary education in Connecticut, and at the same time has contributed much to a clearer appreciation of the beginnings of secondary education in America. C. W. K.

Point Systems and Awards. By EDGAR G. JOHNSTON. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1930. Pp. xv + 160.

This is a questionnaire study of the point system in use in 600 high schools in the United States. In addition a survey was made of pupil participation in extra curricular activities in a South Orange, New Jersey, high school where a point system was developed for the school. The chief value of the monograph is found in the "Suggested Steps in Construction of a Point System." S. B. H.

The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States. By ALGERNON COLEMAN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. xx + 299.

A comprehensive summation of conditions in American schools. The recommendations are after all largely based on subjective premises. The survey should have carried on demonstration teaching to establish possible achievement and goals. A. I. R.

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Office Practice in Secondary Schools. By WILLIAM C. REAVIS AND ROBERT C. WOELLNER. New York: Laidlaw Brothers, 1930. Pp. 240.

This volume presents and analyzes the returns from a questionnaire sent to 967 principals selected from the membership list of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 522 of whom responded.

Data are presented to show in detail the varied office practices of high school principals. For example, the report shows that 86.6 per cent of the principals use desk calendars, that 139 of the principals teach, and that 69.7 per cent of the principals administer budgets. C. W. K.

Character Education. By CHARLES E. GERMANE AND EDITH GAYTON GERMANE. Newark: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1929. Pp. xviii + 224.

Presents "a theory and practice of the character building, that is of personality enrichment by means of a program designed to enable the home and the school to co-operate more intelligently and zealously." Part I discusses how the school can build character. Part II discusses how the school and home can co-operate to build character. Character is defined as "one's way of reacting to his life situations." The book is designed for teachers and for parents "upon whose shoulders jointly rests responsibility for the success or failure, the happiness or sorrow of the nation's children." Suggestive, practical, and, it would appear, effective. L. W. C.

The Development of a State School System: New Hampshire. By EUGENE A. BISHOP. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930. Pp. 159.

This rather careful piece of historical research presents a study of the development of the administration of public education in the State of New Hampshire. Four periods of development are presented to show the progress of the state from a highly decentralized system to one of the most highly centralized of the state systems. A bibliography of 24 titles is included. D. S. C.

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Agriculture for Rural Teachers. By THOMAS CARSON MCCORMICK. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. xiv + 388.

This book presents agriculture from an appreciation point of view in contrast with the vocational point of view. It is a conspectus of the whole of agriculture as an industry, as a business and as a science. It attempts to give teachers of rural schools a broad understanding of the problems involved, and how to teach the subject in the two upper grades or in high schools. The new point of view of the author is a remarkable invocation. Peabody is proud to claim the author as one of its Master's degree men. K. C. D.

Elements of Journalism. By MARY J. J. WRINN. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1929. Pp. xvii + 300.

A good book for the high school journalism course, especially when the students are expected to edit the school paper. The book treats of all phases of journalism interesting to high school pupils, and is admirable in that it is not too technical and does not attempt to present newspaper writing from a professional viewpoint. E. E. F.

The Consistency of Certain Extrovert—Introvert Behavior Patterns of Fifty-One Problem Boys. By THEODORE M. NEWCOMB. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1929. Pp. 123.

A study by observational methods of the degree of consistency of "introvert" or "extrovert" types or patterns in fifty-one boys over a period of five weeks. The consistency of these alleged types (first announced by Jung) were considered from three different points of view and in the light of various published characterizations. Evidence was found too largely against the persistence of these types. The research emphasizes the need of more thorough individual analysis of personalities than by mere classifications into types or general patterns. J. P.

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